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An investigation of the structural relationships among employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at international hotel chains in China

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University of Plymouth

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UNIVERSITY OF PLYMOUTH

**An investigation of the structural relationships among
employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and
satisfaction at international hotel chains in China**

by

Jinhua Zhang

A thesis submitted to the University of Plymouth
in partial fulfilment for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Plymouth Business School

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Author's Declaration

At no time during the registration for the degree of *Doctor of Philosophy* has the author been registered for any other University award without prior agreement of the Doctoral College Quality Sub-Committee.

Work submitted for this research degree at the University of Plymouth has not formed part of any other degree either at the University of Plymouth or at another establishment.

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Jinhua Zhang

Abstract

As the Chinese hotel industry is now operating in a highly-competitive environment, international hotel chains in China need to focus on employee job performance and satisfaction in order to retain competitive advantage. This study aims to offer a theoretical model for, and assessment of, the structural relationships among employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at international hotel chains in China.

In order to achieve the research aims of the study, the author employed mixed methods. Firstly, a total of 31 interviews were conducted to provide practical support and credibility for the theoretical model. Secondly, a survey was conducted in China, which provided 307 valid responses for use in assessment of the model.

The key findings of this study are presented as follows: firstly, pay is not a motivator for employee job performance and satisfaction, while career development plays a significant role in job performance and satisfaction of employees; secondly, employees from the Western economic region of China are more autonomously motivated to engage in work and more satisfied in their present jobs than those from the Eastern economic region of China; thirdly, personality and transformational leadership were drivers of employee autonomous motivation which in turn contributes to employee job performance and satisfaction; fourthly, employees with high levels of performance enjoy good job satisfaction and develop positive guanxi with their supervisors; fifthly, transformational

leadership has a strong impact on the development of positive supervisor-subordinate guanxi; finally, employee job performance mediated the relationship between employee autonomous motivation and employee job satisfaction, and supervisor-subordinate guanxi mediated the relationship between employee job performance and satisfaction.

Based on these findings, both theoretical and practical implications have been developed. This study is one of the first to address how and why employee autonomous motivation, job performance, satisfaction, and supervisor-subordinate guanxi are associated at international hotel chains in China through analysing the direct and mediating relationships between constructs. Practical recommendations are provided for four types of stakeholders: employees are encouraged to work in the Chinese Western region and pay attention to both work-centric and off-work-centric behaviours, with the positive affect; the managements should focus on transformational leadership behaviours; the human resource department need to design effectively individual career development plan and organise specific training; IHCs are suggested to support the establishment of positive guanxi between subordinates and supervisors for individual career development.

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List of abbreviations

AM	Autonomous Motivation
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CB-SEM	Covariance-Based Structural Equation Modelling
CHQ	Cornell Hospitality Quarterly
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development
CM	Controlled Motivation
CNKI	China National Knowledge Infrastructure
CNTA	China National Tourism Administration
EAM	Employee Autonomous Motivation
EJP	Employee Job Performance
EJS	Employee Job Satisfaction
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
HRM	Human Resource Management
IHCs	International Hotel Chains
IHG	InterContinental Hotels Groups
IJCHM	International Journal of Contemporary Management
IJHM	International Journal of Hospitality Management
IJHTA	International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration
JCM	Job Characteristics Model
JHRHT	Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism
JHTR	Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research
LGO	Learning Goal Orientation
MNCs	Multinational Companies
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling
PSN	Personality
SPSS	Statistics Package for the Social Science
Sr-Se GX	Supervisor-Subordinate Guanxi
TMLS	Transformational leadership
WTO	World Trade Organisation

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

In 1982, Beijing Jianguo Hotel introduced the Peninsula Hong Kong management system, representing the entry of international hotel group management to mainland China (Kong and Cheung, 2009; Liu and Zhang, 2011; Pine, 2002). All of the world's top ten international hotel groups have entered the Chinese market; their chains have increased their holdings in China year on year (Zhu and Lv, 2011). The expansion of international hotel chains (IHCs) and the development of domestic hotels has meant that the Chinese hotel industry is now in a very competitive era (Wang, 2016). As service-oriented organisations, IHCs are required to focus on employee job performance and satisfaction in order to retain competitive market advantage (Gu and Siu, 2009). Employee autonomous motivation is a primary factor which enhances employee job performance and satisfaction (Arnold et al., 2016; Armstrong and Taylor, 2017), but there has been little research into how employee autonomous motivation influences both employee job performance and satisfaction in IHCs in the Chinese environment. Thus, this thesis aims to assess the relationships between employee autonomous motivation, job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China.

This Chapter consists of eight Sections. Sections One, Two, Three, and Four provide relevant research needs for this PhD Thesis. Section Five presents the research aims and objectives, linked to the research needs. Section Six explains the study's significance, and Section Seven presents the outline of the Thesis. Section Eight concludes this Chapter, summarising its contents.

1.2 The need for research into employee job performance and satisfaction employee in the hotel industry

The hotel industry is service- and people-oriented, which indicates that employees' behaviour and attitude are critical for the delivery of high-quality customer service and each hotel's retention of competitive advantage (Amissah et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2017). According to Brumback (1988) and Armstrong and Taylor (2017), employees' behaviour and attitude can be reflected in their performance and job satisfaction. Employees who have higher levels of job satisfaction, and, for example, derive happiness from the workplace, may show higher levels of efficiency, leading to improved job performance (Gu and Siu, 2009; Lashley and Morrison, 2000; Robbins and Judge, 2007). Particularly in a highly-competitive era, employees' attitudes towards the delivery of high standards of customer service have become a key factor in the retention of customers' loyalty (Amissah et al., 2016; Pan, 2015; Yang, 2010).

However, high employee turnover is a challenging issue for the hotel industry (Yang, 2014); this is closely related to low levels of job satisfaction (Lam et al., 2001). If employees feel unhappy in the workplace, they are more likely to resign. Over the last decade, employee job performance and satisfaction have remained prevalent topics in the field of hospitality management research (Gross et al., 2013; Tsang et al., 2015). However, a number of these studies focus on employee job performance or satisfaction rather than both of these factors.

1.3 The need to research the impact of autonomous motivation on employee job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China

International hotel groups continue to expand their chains' properties throughout the world (Komodromou, 2012). In the current global hotel market, IHCs have become dominant (Al-Sabi, 2017). International hotel groups and their chains entered the Chinese market after the implementation of the 'open door' policy in China (Liu and Zhang, 2011; Pine, 2002). Their entry meant the introduction of advanced management systems and expatriate employees to China, making a significant contribution to the development of the Chinese hotel industry (Guillet et al., 2011; Kong and Cheung, 2009; Ma and Li, 2009). Since the rapid economic development of China over the last thirty years, China has become the most significant recipient of investment by international hotel groups and their chains (Zhang et al., 2012).

However, along with the development of the Chinese hotel industry, IHCs' operations in China face significant challenges in terms of employee job performance and satisfaction. Firstly, employee localisation has become a key issue since the year 2000 (Yu, 2006). Selmer (2003, p.43) explains that employee localisation 'refers to the extent to which jobs originally held by expatriates are filled by local employees who are competent to perform the job'. Employee localisation offers significant savings in labour costs, however it mitigates restrictions on expatriate employees imposed by the Chinese government and gives rise to cross-cultural conflicts (Chan et al., 2016a; Chan et al., 2016b; Yan, 2007). A shortage of qualified employees continues to impede the progress of employee localisation (Chan et al., 2016b; Zhang and Wu, 2004). Further, due to the rapid growth of domestic Chinese hotels, the hotel industry in China is in a highly competitive era, with employees finding increased opportunities for job advancement (Wang, 2016). To retain competitive advantage in the Chinese market, and reduce turnover rates,

encouraging positive workplace attitudes and behaviours among employees plays an important role (Amissah et al., 2016; Pan, 2015; Yang, 2010).

Employees who are motivated in their workplaces are symbolic of an organisation's success (Huczynski and Buchanan, 2013). Employee motivation is a primary determinant of good performance and improvement in job satisfaction (Sledge et al., 2008). According to self-determination theory, autonomy plays a significant role in the development of motivation (Arnold et al., 2016). The nature of autonomous motivation is self-expression or self-consistent, which reflects individual volition towards the work and highlights that individuals need to internalise their external regulations and values (Gagné and Deci, 2005). However, research into how autonomous motivation influences employee job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China remains scant. Further, numerous academic articles (e.g. Chang and Teng, 2017; Dipietro et al., 2014; Groch, 2015; Joung et al., 2015; Kaurav et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2015; Wang, 2016; Wu et al., 2013) published in the world's leading tourism and hospitality publications reveal that methods of enhancement of employee performance and job satisfaction by motivational measures need to be further and more thoroughly investigated.

1.4 The need to research the influences of demographic profiles

Different demographic groups of employees (identified by gender, education, economic region, department, position, and lengths of service) evidence different levels of employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction. In particular, there is little research into how position and economic region impact on employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at IHCs in China.

According to the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD), employees are defined as those who work under an employment contract that is issued in writing, orally, or both, within two months of the commencement of employment. The majority of the research into employee autonomous motivation, job performance and satisfaction regards employees as non-supervisory members of their organisations (e.g. Akgunduz, 2015; Amin et al., 2017; Amissah et al., 2016; Chiang et al., 2005; Jung and Yoon, 2015; Karatepe, 2012; Li et al., 2012; Ling et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2016; Nadda et al., 2014; Pan, 2015; Salanova et al., 2005). The definition of employee by the CIPD (2017) implies that supervisors, managers, and directors who are at higher-level or supervisory level are still employees, but they are not considered as employees in many previous studies.

According to the National Bureau of Statistics of China (2011), the country's economic regions are divided into East, West, Central and Northeast. During the preliminary stage of rapid development of IHCs in China (1982-2000), branches were generally located in cities (e.g. Beijing, Shanghai, and Shenzhen) in the Eastern region of China where the economic situation is more favourable than that of other regions (Yu, 2006; Zhang et al., 2012). IHCs in China embarked on comprehensive development at the start of the 21st Century when China joined the World Trade Organisation (Ma and Li, 2009; Yu, 2006). At this stage, IHCs expanded from the Eastern region to the Central and Western regions, which enabled their rapid economic development, with the tourism sector enjoying supportive government policies, such as tax breaks, to attract foreign investment (Zhang et al., 2012). Along with the nationwide expansion of IHCs, it is useful to compare employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and job satisfaction between the different regions.

1.5 The need to research supervisor-subordinate guanxi at IHCs in China

Guanxi is a Chinese term, which is similar to the English term ‘relationship’, ‘social capital’ or ‘social connections’ (Hsu et al., 2012). Supervisor-subordinate guanxi has a significant impact on every facet of Chinese society and individual social life (Park and Luo, 2001). For example, an employee who wants to obtain a promotion opportunity may be required to establish positive guanxi with their supervisors in China. Some previous studies (e.g. Cheung et al., 2009; Hom and Xiao, 2011; Qiu et al., 2014; Qiu et al., 2015; Yang and Lau, 2015) indicate that supervisor-subordinate guanxi is linked to employee job satisfaction and performance. Even though IHCs belong to multinational corporations in which home countries’ culture is operationally predominant, they may to some extent be influenced by supervisor-subordinate guanxi. According to the relevant research on the influence of supervisor-subordinate guanxi, it remains rare.

1.6 Aims and objectives

Based on research needs, the aims and objectives of the study are presented as follows:

Aim 1:

- To propose a theoretical model of the structural relationships among employee autonomous motivation, job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China.

Objectives:

- To provide a general review of employee motivation, the role of autonomy in motivation, job performance and satisfaction in IHCs;
- To provide a review of the development of the Chinese hotel industry at IHCs in China;

- To provide a review of employee motivation, the role of autonomy in motivation, job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China;
- To develop the initial theoretical model corresponding to the literature review;
- To update the theoretical model through interviews.

Aim 2:

- To assess the structural relationships among employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at IHCs in China

Objectives:

- To assess the influences of demographic profiles on employee autonomous motivation, job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China;
- To assess the direct relationships between the constructs in the theoretical model;
- To assess the mediation in the theoretical model.

1.7 Significance of the study

Based on the research needs in in Sections 1.2, 1.3, 1.4, and 1.5, this study calls for a shift in focus of Chinese IHCs' operations from expansion to human resource management. A review of the relevant literature indicates that most research focuses only on employee job performance or satisfaction rather than both of them, and few studies focus on the role of autonomy in motivation, therefore the primary contribution of this study is to develop a theoretical model which describes the relationships among employee autonomous motivation, job performance, satisfaction in Chinese IHCs using both qualitative and quantitative research methods. The qualitative method supports the credibility of the theoretical model, and the study develops valid indicators for relevant constructs. The quantitative method demonstrates the direct and mediating effects of employee autonomous motivation, performance, and job satisfaction.

As current research relating to supervisor-subordinate guanxi in Chinese IHCs remains scant, this study's research results demonstrate how the phenomenon of supervisor-subordinate guanxi relates to employee performance and job satisfaction. It includes the direct and mediating effects of supervisor-subordinate guanxi, employee performance, and job satisfaction. Further, methods for promotion of the development of guanxi from both supervisors and subordinates are investigated and assessed by this study.

Finally, this study assesses the influences of demographic profiles (in particular economic regions and positions) on employee autonomy and motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at IHCs in China, in order to provide a comprehensive understanding of the relationship between these issues. As increasing numbers of international hotel chains have entered the Chinese market and have continued to expand from the Eastern economic region to the Western and Central economic regions (Yu, 2006; Zhang et al., 2012), this study collected data from the Eastern, Central, and Western economic regions. The majority of the relevant research continues to focus on the Eastern economic region, which is inconsistent with the rapid development of the hotel industry in the Central and Western economic regions. By providing research outcomes from three different economic regions, this study identifies the differences in employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction in the various economic regions.

The majority of research on employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction (e.g. Akgunduz, 2015; Amin et al., 2017; Amissah et al., 2016; Chiang et al., 2005; Jung and Yoon, 2015; Karatepe, 2012; Nadda et al., 2014; Pan, 2015; Salanova et al., 2005) considers employees as non-supervisory members of the workforce, as opposed to the full range of job roles, therefore the study fills this research gap by assessing the

differences between employee autonomous motivation, performance and job satisfaction in relation to specific job roles.

1.8 Outline of the thesis

Chapter One presents the introduction to the thesis. In this Chapter, the research needs, aims, objectives, and study significance are presented.

Chapter Two provides a review of employee performance and job satisfaction at IHCs in general. It starts with the definition of an IHC, followed by entry modes of IHCs worldwide. Next, the Chapter gives an overview of HRM in the hotel industry. This Section provides a critical review of performance and job satisfaction, highlighting the fact that little research to date addresses how employee performance influences job satisfaction and performance, and how satisfaction is mediated by the third related construct. Finally, this Chapter identifies key challenging issues for IHCs and emphasises the need to explore employee job performance and satisfaction. This Chapter leads naturally to the following Chapter, which gives a specific picture of IHCs' operations within China.

Chapter Three provides a review of employee performance and job satisfaction at IHCs in China. It starts with a description of the development of the Chinese hotel industry and IHCs within China. Based on the assessed key issues for IHCs in Chapter Two, this Chapter then assesses challenging issues for IHCs linked specifically to the Chinese environment. Finally, according to a systematic review of employee performance and job satisfaction, this Chapter highlights the fact that little research has been conducted on how addressing employee performance and job satisfaction through employee motivation, and on how guanxi impacts employee job performance and satisfaction at IHCs within China.

Chapter Four provides a review of employee motivation and the role of autonomy in motivation. It begins with the definition of employee motivation for the purposes of this study, followed by discussion of primary theories of motivation used in the workplace, and the importance of autonomy in the motivation process. The discussion develops potential motivators. The Chapter then provides a systematic review of employee motivation in the hotel industry in order to identify the research gaps. Based on the literature review and research gaps, this Chapter ultimately identifies six constructs, specifically: learning goal orientation, personality, employee autonomous motivation, job performance, job satisfaction, and supervisor-subordinate guanxi.

Chapter Five develops the initial theoretical model of the study of the relationship among employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at IHCs in China. This Chapter begins with hypotheses of the direct relationships between constructs, followed by the mediating effects proposed. Finally, the initial theoretical model is reconsidered.

Chapter Six explains the methodology of this research. It provides the rationale for the choice of research approach through analysis of the philosophical position and paradigm of inquiry of the research. Next, two stages of the research process are presented. At each stage, the research purpose, strategy, design, data collection process, data analysis, reliability and validity are described, concluding with ethical considerations.

Chapter Seven presents the findings and discussion of the qualitative research. Specifically, the determinants of employee autonomous motivation at work in IHCs, employee performance and satisfaction are presented and discussed in relation to the previous literature. In-depth insights are presented, and the theoretical model is updated.

Chapter Eight presents the first stage of findings, and discussion of the quantitative research. This Chapter begins with assessment of the respondents' demographic profiles by gender, education level, region, department, job position, length of service, and current hotel chain of employment. The Chapter then considers whether there are significant differences in employee motivation, overall performance, and job satisfaction with regard to the respondents' demographic profiles through independent samples t-test or one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Discussion of the key findings follows.

Chapter Nine provides the second stage of findings and discussion of the quantitative research. It starts with assessment of reflective and formative measurement models, followed by assessment of the structural model, in order to address the potential relationships among employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction. Finally, the effects of mediation through supervisor-subordinate guanxi on the relationship between employee performance and job satisfaction is assessed. In summary, this Chapter tests and assesses all the research hypotheses, with detailed discussion.

This thesis concludes with Chapter Ten, which begins with a summary of its key findings, linked to the research aims and objectives. Next, the theoretical contributions of the research into human resource management and hospitality are presented. These also provide ideas for directions for future research, and the opportunity for reflection to show the author's personal academic development through the PhD study process. Finally, the practical implications for employees, managements, human resource departments, and international hotel chains are shown. Figure 1.1 presents the relationships between the Chapters of this thesis.

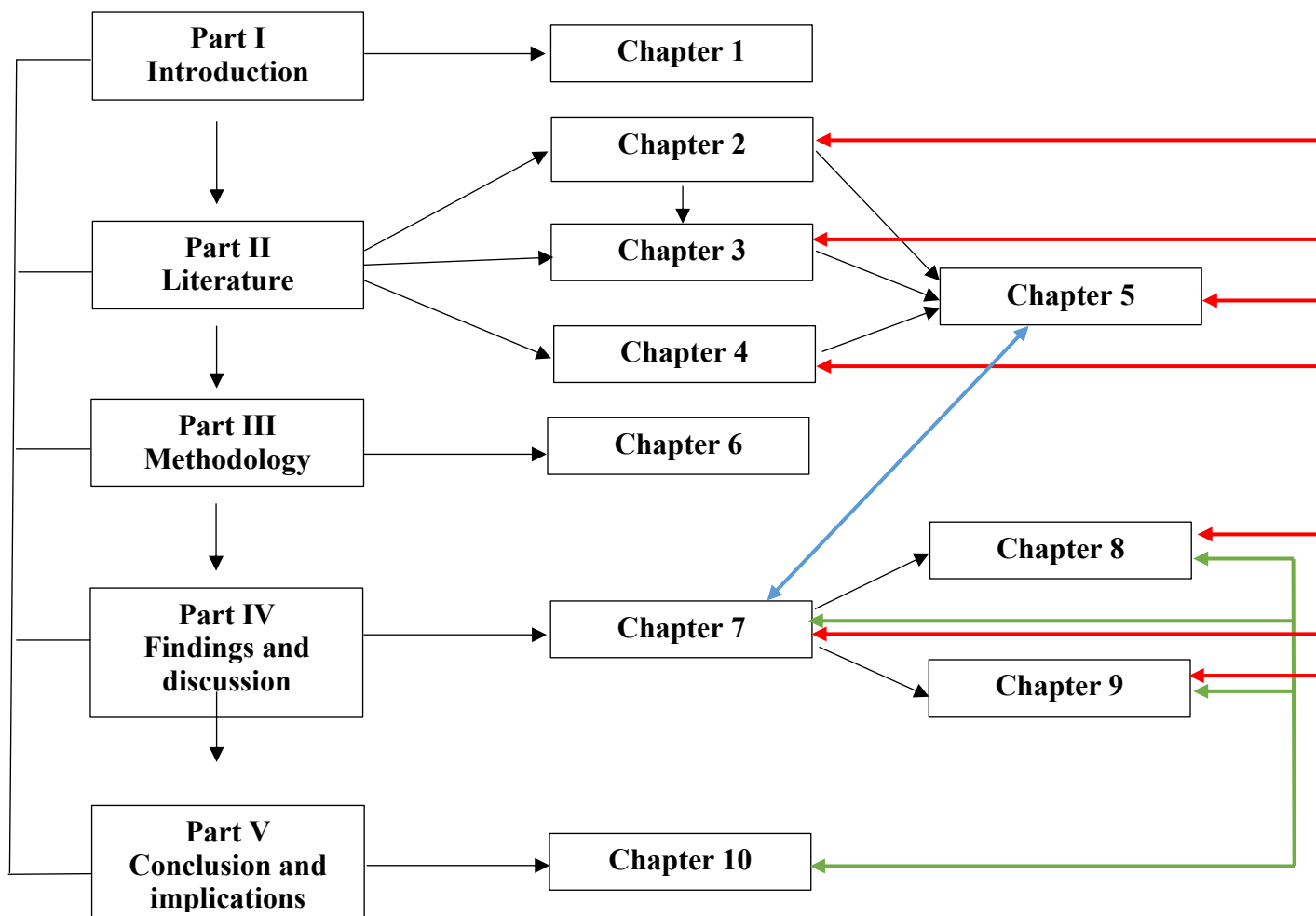


Figure 1.1: The relationships among chapters of the thesis

Chapter 2 Employee job performance and satisfaction at international hotel chains

2.1 Introduction

In recent decades, international hotel chains (IHCs) have experienced continuous development and expansion all over the world, as a result of economic globalisation (Komodromou, 2012). Taking Hilton and InterContinental Hotels Group (IHG) as examples, the total number of rooms of the Hilton Group in 1999 was 300,279 which increased to 678,630 in 2013 and 758,502 in 2015 respectively (Hilton, 1999; Hilton, 2013; Hilton 2015); IHG's global total number of rooms in 2005 was 537,533, which rose to 744,368 by 2015 (IHG, 2005; IHG, 2015). Along with their worldwide expansion, competition in the global hotel industry is fiercer than ever. As IHCs are service-oriented organisations, the key challenging issues they face relate to employee job performance and satisfaction, which play a significant role in retaining competitive advantage in the global hotel industry (Amissah et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2017; Law and Tam, 2008; Yang, 2014).

This Chapter addresses the first objective of Aim One, which proposes a theoretical model of the structural relationships between employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at HICs in China. The first objective of Aim One is divided into two stages. This Chapter provides a general review of employee performance and job satisfaction in IHCs, including relevant challenging HRM issues, as the first step towards achievement of this objective. This Chapter consists of four Sections: Section One assesses the relevant general background of IHCs. Section Two evaluates human resource management (HRM) in IHCs. Section Three provides a critical review of

employee performance and job satisfaction in the hotel industry and IHCs. Section Four concludes this Chapter.

2.2 International hotel chains in context

2.2.1 Definition of the term ‘international hotel chains’

This study collates definitions associated with international hotels over the past 20 years (Table 2.1). This table indicates that hotel groups at international level do not have uniform nomenclature in different definitions. Referring to the Yearbook of China Tourism Statistics (CNTA¹, 1999), Zhang et al., (2012) consider them as ‘multinational hotel groups’. Brooks (2007), Chen and Dimou (2005), and Contractor and Kundu (1998a) regard them as ‘international hotel firms’. Further, Contractor and Kundu (1998a) emphasise that international hotel firms have no fewer than one set of premises. Some researchers (e.g. Alexander and Lockwood, 1996; Burges et al., 1995; Roper et al., 1997) use the term ‘international hotel groups’. However, definitions are normally employed interchangeably (Chen and Dimou, 2005; Ivanova et al., 2016).

This study focuses on what a hotel chain actually is. A hotel chain is not equivalent to a hotel corporation, company, group, or organisation which owns two or more brands within its property portfolio (Ivanova et al., 2016). For example, Accor Corporation is a hotel corporation, but Ibis and Premier Inn are hotel chains belonging to Accor Corporation (Ivanova et al., 2016). Similarly, hotel chains such as InterContinental, Holiday Inn, and Holiday Inn Express are affiliated to InterContinental Hotels Group, which is a hotel company or group (Alon et al., 2012; Xu, 2015).

Although some researchers (e.g. Andrews, 2009; Contractor and Kundu, 1998a; Ivanova et al., 2016) consider hotel chains as global in their definitions, they can be divided into

specific international and domestic chains (Ivanova, 2013; Jafari, 2000). Domestic hotel chains operate in one country, such as 7 Days Group Holdings Limited which belongs to Plateno Group (Plateno, 2016). In contrast, international hotel chains emphasise that their properties are located across the world, such as Holiday Inn or InterContinental (Xu, 2015). Table 2.1 indicates that the term ‘international hotel chains’ focuses on common brand features and centralised functions across the world. In general, academic studies use the term ‘international hotel chains’ (Al-Sabi et al., 2017; Dipietro et al., 2014; Karatepe and Tizabi, 2011; Kim et al., 2011; Wang, 2016). Because the purpose of this study is to assess hotel chains which have properties worldwide rather than nationwide, it is necessary for the researcher to distinguish between international hotel chains and domestic hotel chains. In brief, this study uses the term ‘international hotel chains’. When integrating definitions of international hotel chains in Table 2.1, the simplified definition used in the study refers to hotel properties throughout the world being operated by a common brand with at least one centralised function being used in all affiliated properties. To remain consistent with the term ‘international hotel chain’, hotel groups represented at international level are termed ‘international hotel groups’ for the purposes of this study.

Table 2.1: Definitions about international hotel organisations and IHCs

Author(s)	Definition	Traits
Ingram and Baum (1997, p. 68)	Chains are collections of service organizations, doing substantially the same thing (often the only differentiation is in physical space), that are linked together into a larger organization. The relationships between the components of a chain are horizontal, although typically there are centralized parts of the chain, such as distribution facility, that have vertical relationships to the components.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collection • Horizontal and vertical relationships
Contractor and Kundu (1998a, p. 327)	A global hotel firm is defined as one of either has an equity stake in a foreign property, or operates the hotel under a management service agreement, or is a franchiser to the foreign hotel property. Thus, a company could be a global firm without any ownership of a foreign property.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Foreign countries • Entry modes
Yearbook of China Tourism Statistics (1999, p. 145)	A multinational hotel group is defined as the economic type of an enterprise which is set up by foreign investors who invest in mainland China in compliance with the laws and regulation of the People's Republic of China concerning foreign economic relations, in the forms of joint venture companies, joint operation companies or companies of exclusive foreign investment, including three modes, i.e. Sino-foreign joint ventures, Sino-foreign jointly operated enterprises, and enterprises with exclusive foreign capital.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Foreign investors • Mainland China • Laws and regulation • Entry modes

Table 2.1 (Continued)

Jafari (2000, p. 76)	Chain hotels are made up of affiliated properties by virtue of the fact that the chain is contracted on a continuing basis to be responsible for putting in place at least one management function in the whole system. A hotel chain is thus an organisation that competes in the tourism industry, either locally, nationally, regionally or internationally, with more than one unit of similar concept or theme.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affiliated properties • Centralised management • internationally
Brotherton (2003, p. 15)	Multi-unit service organizations in which units operate under a system of decision-making permitting coherent policies and a common strategy through one or more decision-making centres, and where hotel units and corporate functions are linked to add value to each other by ownership or contractual relationships.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coherent policies • Common strategy • Ownership or contractual relationships
Andrews (2009, p. 19)	A hotel chain is a series of hotels under a common brand name spread both nationally and internationally.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The same brand • International level
Ivanova <i>et al.</i> (2016, p. 47)	A hotel chain is a group of hotels, or any accommodation establishments, sharing a common brand and similar concept, implementing at least one centralised function, in order to reach a better market position and improve the performance of all properties. The hotel chains utilise equity and/or non-equity modes for their growth and operate on local, regional, national and/or international level.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Common brand • Centralised function • Entry modes • International level

2.2.2 Expansion strategies

(1) Equity modes

Choice of expansion strategy is critical when hotel chains enter overseas markets; entry modes are generally considered as expansion strategies (Ivanova et al., 2016). Entry modes are divided into equity and non-equity modes. Non-equity modes mean not having equity investment by foreign entities (e.g. franchising, management contracts, and licensing), while equity modes denote equity investment (e.g. 100% or majority ownership) (Erramilli et al., 2002; Endo, 2006). Anderson and Gatignon (1986) point out that equity modes link to high levels of control of the operational systems of hotel chains. Ivanova et al. (2016) similarly suggest an advantage of equity modes, which is to keep the standard or high quality of products and services consistent within chains. In this manner, a chain's positive image and reputation will be maintained and customers who favour this brand will be loyal to it (Ivanova et al., 2016). However, Altinay (2005) argues that non-equity modes are more appropriate than equity modes in unstable political and economic environments. Meanwhile, Zhao and Olsen (1997) demonstrate that a volatile political environment is a key consideration for corporations planning to use equity modes as an expansion strategy, whereas non-equity modes do not regard these issues as key considerations.

(2) Non-equity modes

Many researchers (e.g. Alon et al., 2012; Contractor and Kundu, 1998b; Dev et al., 2002; Erramilli et al., 2002; Zhao and Olsen, 1997) believe that non-equity modes are predominant in the worldwide expansion of international hotel chains. Contractor and Kundu (1998a) carried out a study using a questionnaire for 1131 hotels (60% of which

were foreign-owned); they found that non-equity mode investment represented 65.4% of international hotel properties. The Annual Reports of Hilton Worldwide, IHG, and Starwood in 2015 specifically indicate that hotels with non-equity entry modes are much better-represented than those with equity entry modes.

Table 2.2: Room count of hotel chains of Hilton Worldwide by the end of 2015

Chain name	Ownership	Management	Franchising
Waldorf Astoria Hotels & Resorts	1,611	7,708	984
Conrad Hotels & Resorts	805	5,794	1,186
Hilton Hotels & Resorts	48,562	88,186	69,887
Curio-A Collection by Hilton	224	998	3,482
DoubleTree by Hilton	4,264	26,259	80,249
Embassy Suites by Hilton	2,523	9,777	40,984
Hilton Garden Inn	290	7,030	86,711
Hampton by Hilton	130	9,131	201,111
Homewood Suites by Hilton	0	2,911	40,490
Home2 Suites by Hilton	0	97	7,503
Other	1,054	957	452
Total	59,463	166,000 (plus Hilton Grand Vacations)	533,039

Source: Adapted from annual report of Hilton worldwide in 2015.

Table 2.2 shows that all hotel chains affiliated to Hilton Worldwide have many more rooms in non-equity mode hotels (franchising and management) than equity mode hotels (ownership). Among non-equity modes, franchising is the method of choice for a variety of international hotel chains (Altinay, 2005; Contractor and Kundu, 1998b). From Table 2.2, it can be noted that hotel chains with franchising entry mode have in total three times more rooms than their management entry mode counterparts. Franchising is defined as a business ownership method in which the franchisor gives rights to a franchisee to operate a business, such as providing products and services under a trademark (Contractor and Kundu, 1998b). In the franchise situation, international hotel chains (with centralised management) are franchisors, while individual affiliated hotels are franchisees (Ivanova

and Ivanov, 2015). According to Contractor and Kundu (1998b), the risks to international hotel chains are decreased when using franchising as a method of business ownership; firstly, franchisors do not have direct capital investment risk. Secondly, franchisees are required to pay an initial fee and revenue-based royalties, which mean that income is comparatively stable. Thirdly, trademark or brand name is tightly controlled by the franchisor so that the opportunity for 'free-riding' is minimised. Fourthly, challenging customer service situations can be decreased by adherence to the standard rules within the franchising agreement. These advantages of franchising mean that international hotel chains prefer this method for the expansion of their hotel chains into other countries where there are highly competitive market pressures (Contractor and Kundu, 1998b). They conclude that large-size hotel corporations are the most willing to adopt franchising as their expansion strategy. However, Chen and Dimou (2005) advance an alternative perspective, that franchising might lead to 'free riding' as a result of the transaction costs approach.

Fladmoe-Lindquist and Jacque (1995) demonstrate that the greater the geographical or cultural distance, the more likely it is that franchising will be adopted by service industries, because franchising is a means of decreasing the costs of the necessarily increased levels of monitoring. Alon et al. (2012) contend that decreasing the need for monitoring depends on the way in which franchisees operate in relation to franchisors, in order to motivate them to align with franchisors' standard operating procedures. Franchisees obviously need to continually refine their monitoring skills in order to decrease associated costs; these skills are not easily developed (Alon et al., 2012). Further, a lack of franchising experience will result in high monitoring costs, impeding the international expansion process. Therefore, gaining relevant expertise is crucial when franchising is used as expansion strategy (Alon et al., 2012).

Management contract, as another prevalent non-equity entry mode, refers to an agreement made between a management company which takes responsibility for the operation of a business, and a hotel owner undertaking the maintenance of the property and payment of management services (Garcia-Falcon and Medina-Munoz, 1999). In the case of 'principal-agent' ownership, an individual affiliated to a hotel, owning the property, is the principal; the hotel company acts as an agent, in contrast to the franchise model (Ivanova and Ivanov, 2015). deRoos (2011) describes the way in which international hotel corporations expand their chains with low cost and low risk through the use of a management contract. Beals and Denton (2004), however, argue that there is a disparity of interest between a hotel chain aiming at expansion and a branch owner who is pursuing maximum revenue. Further, under the transaction costs approach, a management contract reduces managerial positivity, because managers' compensation is fixed remuneration (Chen and Dimou, 2005). Because each entry mode has its own drawbacks, Chen and Dimou (2005) recommend that multiple entry modes are used as international expansion develops.

2.3 Human resource management in international hotel chains

2.3.1 Human resource management in context

(1) The transition from 'personnel management' to 'human resource management'

The term 'Human resource management' emerged in the 1980s, as the debate about the transition from 'personnel management' to 'human resource management' began (Bach, 2005). Guest (1987) made a comparison between 'personnel management' and 'human resource management', presenting in Table 2.3. Torrington et al. (2014) explains the transition from 'personnel management' to 'human resource management' by six key

stages of its history (social justice, humane bureaucracy, negotiated consent, organisation, HRM, and new human resource). In short, the development of ‘human resource management’ and the decline of ‘personnel management’ are due to the changes in economic, social, political, and industrial environments (Davidson et al., 2011; Torrington et al., 2014). According to Bach and Edwards (2013, p. 58), ‘human resource management’ is defined as “all management decisions related to policies and practices that together shape the employment relationship and are aimed at achieving individual, organisational and societal goals”.

Table 2.3: Stereotypes of personnel management and human resource management

	Personnel management	Human resource management
Time and planning perspective	Short-term: reactive ad hoc marginal	Long-term: proactive strategic integrated
Psychological contract	Compliance	Commitment
Control system	External controls	Internal controls
Employee relations perspective	Pluralist: collective low-trust	Unitarist: individual high-trust
Preferred structures/systems	Bureaucratic: centralized formal defined roles	Organic: devolved flexible roles
Roles	Specialist	Line management
Evaluation criteria	Cost minimisation	Maximise Utilisation

Source: Abbreviated from Guest (1987)

(2) Strategic human resource management

The term ‘strategic human resource management’ (SHRM) emerged in 1980s and has attracted increased attention since the 1990s (Carey, 1999; Lundy, 1994). SHRM essentially requires HRM to be integrated with all organisational functions and stresses the supportive function of HRM to all organisational business strategies (Carey, 1999). Therefore, SHRM is defined as “the choice, alignment, and integration of an

organization's HRM system so that its human capital resources most effectively contribute to strategic business objectives" (Cascio, 2015, p. 423). In the context of economic globalisation, SHRM provides competitive advantage to organisations (Barney, 1991; Lado and Wilson, 1994). However, the differences between SHRM and HRM's strategies should be noted. Armstrong and Taylor (2017) explain that SHRM forms the framework within which HRM strategies or policies are strategically implemented.

(3) International human resource management and strategic human resource management

Due to rapid economic globalisation, increasing numbers of researchers (e.g. Cieri et al., 2005; Gerhart, 2008; Rosenzweig, 2006; Rowley and Warner, 2007; Warner, 2005) have considered international human resource management (IHRM). Table 2.4 gives an example of the increase in IHRM research. IHRM is concerned with HRM policies and practices in multinational companies (MNCs); these are crucial for MNCs to sustain competitive advantage in global markets (Schuler and Tarique, 2007). Cieri et al. (2005) indicate that cross-cultural issues, which are the principal HRM focus of the latter part of this section, are among the most important current features of IHRM activity.

Table 2.4: Published articles about IHRM

Period	Journal	Quantity of article
1985-1994	Academy of Management Journal	Fewer than 5 articles per year
1995-2004	Academy of Management Journal	15 articles as median
2000-2004	Academy of Management Journal	More than 15 articles per year
2004	Academy of Management Journal	25 of all 54 articles

Source: Adapted from Gerhart (2008)

While IHRM has become a focus for increasing numbers of researchers, the term 'strategic international human resource management' (strategic IHRM) has equally attracted wide attention (Gannon et al., 2015; Zheng, 2013). SIHRM is concerned with

issues of balance between a parent company and its subsidiaries, and the development of strategies of differentiation and normalisation (Zheng, 2013).

According to Zheng (2013), three elements of the shaping of strategic IHRM policies in MNCs should be considered: firstly MNCs need to consider whether their subsidiaries are permitted to operate independently; secondly, MNCs need to spend a considerable amount of time and financial resources on management of their global workforces; thirdly MNCs need to consider how they recruit their employees (locally, regionally, or globally), and whether they should transfer some staff from the parent company to its subsidiaries. Taylor et al. (1996) established a model to test a strategic IHRM system at three levels, specifically: parent company (centralised management), subsidiary, and employees within the subsidiary. There were three academic conclusions drawn from their model: firstly, HRM capacity in the form of HRM policies issued by centralised management to subsidiaries in other countries is crucial for centralised management to retain competitive global advantage; secondly, centralised management plays a critical role in devising strategic HRM policies; thirdly, centralised management needs to differentiate and assess discrete groups of employees in order to allow informed decisions to be made about the allocation of limited resources. Armstrong and Taylor (2017) point out that cultural and institutional differences affect the operation of IHRM policies and practices, and strategic IHRM is influenced by MNCs' international business objectives. Therefore, the strategic implementation of IHRM remains a challenge.

International hotel chains operating as MNCs need to consider their own strategic IHRM in order to retain competitive advantage in the global market. However, their IHRM practices become more challenging and complicated with the development of their global expansion (Schuler et al., 1993). Before considering international hotel chains' SIHRM, it is essential to assess the key issues in relation to HRM in IHCs.

2.3.2 Challenging HRM issues in relation to employee job performance and satisfaction

This study has collected 82 articles, the majority of which are from leading journals. Table 2.5 shows the study's focus on employee turnover and cross-cultural matters which are two challenging HRM issues.

Table 2.5: Journal articles by issues and years

Years	Issues	Number of articles	Total
1996-2000	Employee turnover	4	11
	Cross-culture	7	
2001-2005	Employee turnover	5	13
	Cross-culture	8	
2006-2010	Employee turnover	9	17
	Cross-culture	8	
2011-2016	Employee turnover	25	41
	Cross-culture	16	
Total	Employee turnover	43	82
	Cross-culture	39	

(1) High turnover rate of employees

High employee turnover rate is a key current challenge for HRM in the hotel industry. In the global hotel industry, the employee turnover rate is between 60 and 300% per year (Yang, 2014). Since the initial work of Johnson (1981) who was the pioneer of research into this issue, it has remained a highly-researched topic (Yang, 2014). Table 2.6 shows that the majority of articles reviewed in this study come from the leading tourism and hospitality publications. Countries leading research on this topic are Australia, China, New Zealand, and the United States. Current research on employee turnover can be categorised as follows:

Table 2.6: Journals and articles about employee turnover issue

Journal	Author(s)
Annals of Tourism Research	Lam et al. (2003)
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	Birdir (2002); Davidson et al. (2010); Davidson et al. (2011); Poulston (2008)
International Journal of Hospitality Management	Deery and Shaw (1997); Davidson et al. (2006); Kim et al. (2015); Mohsin et al. (2013); Pizam and Thornburg (2000); Rowley and Purcell (2001)
International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration	Ariyabuddhiphongs and Marican (2015); Babakus et al. (2008); Hwang et al. (2014); Poulston (2005);
Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism	Chiang et al. (2005); Brien et al. (2015); Dipietro and Condly (2007); Kang et al. (2015); Lv et al. (2012)
Journal of China Tourism Research	Hung (2013); Qiu et al. (2015)
Tourism Management	Mohsin et al. (2015)
Tourism Tribune	Chen and Zheng (2016); Duan et al. (2015); Ma et al. (2014); Shao et al. (2009); Tian and Zuo (2013); Wang and Cong (2007); Yang (2014)
Other Journals	Cheng and Brown (1998); Chikwe (2009); Dusek et al. (2016); Faldetta et al. (2013); Hom and Xiao (2011); Lashley and Chaplain (1999); Lee et al. (2012); Mumford and Mielke (2010)

Reasons for increased employee turnover in the hotel industry

Employee turnover is related to job satisfaction, and many previous studies indicate that work/life balance, low remuneration, long working hours, lack of promotion opportunities, and ineffective training are principal factors of low job satisfaction which lead employees in the hotel industry to resign their posts (Chiang et al., 2005; Chiang and Jang, 2008; Davidson et al., 2006; Pizam and Thornburg, 2000; Qiu et al., 2015; Rowley and Rurcell, 2001; Yang, 2014). For example, Davidson et al. (2006) adopt quantitative and qualitative methods to establish that operational employees of IHCs in Australia earn a maximum of AU\$ 30000 per annum for a minimum of 40 working hours per week, which is below the AU\$ 33000 Australian average annual income. Their findings indicate

that low pay and long working hours lead to a high turnover rate of operational employees. Their findings cannot, however, fully explain the reasons for the turnover of managerial employees in international hotel chains, because they only considered the remuneration of managerial employees, which was not particularly low. In contrast, the study of Birdir (2002) collected data on 144 general managers of hotels, identifying the fact that that hotels averagely replace their general managers every 2.5 years due to management-owner conflict and general managers' career development decisions.

South Korean researchers, including Hwang et al. (2014) and Kim et al. (2015), consider occupational stress as an influential factor in employees' decisions to resign. The study of Mohsin et al. (2013) concludes that the higher the level of remuneration, the more likely employees are to be motivated. In their opinion loyalty, motivation, and organisational enthusiasm are the most significant factors in the Indian hotel industry. Babakus et al. (2008) and Dipietro and Condly (2007) also highlight the fact that motivation levels have an impact on employee turnover. Despite this observation, a critical review by the author of the relevant literature indicates that little research focuses on how motivation influences employee turnover.

Costs of employee turnover to hotels

Some researchers have analysed the costs of employee turnover in the hotel industry (e.g. Chikwe, 2009; Davidson et al., 2010; Lashley and Chaplain, 1999; Rowley and Purcell, 2001). Rowley and Purcell (2001) observe that this will increase pressure on remaining employees, because they need to close the gap caused by staff and skill shortage. Lashley and Chaplain (1999) analyse the indirect costs of staff turnover to hotels.

There are two aspects which comprise indirect costs: recruitment and selection of new employees will take up managers' time, which could be used on other activities, and new employees' performance levels are lower than those of their predecessors, which negatively impacts hotels' service standards and their customers' satisfaction levels. Indirect cost is very difficult to calculate precisely, but it will certainly impact on organisational performance (Mankiw, 2015). Davidson et al. (2010) report that staff turnover costs in the 64 Australian hotels they studied was in total AU\$49 million per annum due to the need for the recruitment of new managerial and operational employees, thus demonstrating that the direct cost of employee turnover is significant.

Strategies to mitigate employee turnover rate

To mitigate high employee turnover rates and retain employees, the most important strategy is to keep employees' job satisfaction rates high (Cheng and Brown, 1998). Numerous researchers (e.g. Birdir, 2002; Cheng and Brown, 1998; Chiang et al., 2005; Davidson et al., 2006; Davidson et al., 2011; Poulston, 2008; Rowley and Purcell, 2001) support the viewpoint that training plays an important role in decreasing staff turnover rates in the hotel industry. One key training principle is to monitor trainees' morale and identify training programmes which engage them, and which they appreciate (Davidson et al., 2011). Rowley and Purcell (2001) conducted a study using semi-structured interviews in 21 hotels, which demonstrated that training was critical to staff retention. Rowley and Purcell (2001) observe that employees' commitment may be improved when a culture which emphasises the value of long-term employment is developed. This study did not, however, employ quantitative methods such as questionnaires to collect data. According to Davidson et al. (2006), the majority of managerial hotel staff are satisfied with their training, because they see it as useful to their career development and encouraging to their confidence in remaining in their current hotels; however, a small

number of operational employees believe further training is necessary. In other words, training is not definitively proven to retain operational employees, according to the study findings of Davidson et al. (2006). High labour turnover rates in the hotel industry increase training costs and pressures, negatively impacting customer service quality, which leads some hotels to reduce spending on training (Davidson et al., 2011).

As noted above, low pay is one of key reasons for the high employee turnover rate in the hotel industry. Therefore, increasing employees' remuneration can increase their job satisfaction and willingness to remain in their organisations (Cheng and Brown, 1998; Davidson et al., 2006). Cheng and Brown (1998) consider remuneration as the secondary factor which mitigates employee turnover, pointing out that remuneration based on job role as opposed to performance has little effect on employee turnover or retention. In contrast, remuneration packages combining a basic wage, insurance coverage, and fringe benefits (e.g. staff discount at sister hotels) may enhance employees' willingness to remain in their organisations (Cheng and Brown, 1998).

Although Babakus et al. (2008) and Dipietro and Condly (2007) describe how motivation strongly impacts employee turnover, they do not directly propose strategies for the reduction of employee turnover through motivational measures. Similarly, Hwang et al. (2014) have identified a range of occupational stressors which impact on employee turnover, but they do not suggest how to reduce turnover through addressing these stressors. This indicates that research into psychological approaches to mitigate high employee turnover rates is an area worthy of future research.

(2) Cross-cultural conflict

Employee turnover is an issue for the hotel industry, but cross-cultural conflict is more prevalent in IHCs than domestic hotels and is therefore a more significant issue for them, because worldwide expansion of international hotel chains means that employees from different countries will be working together at the same location (Chen et al., 2012; Groschl, 2011). Ivanova et al. (2016) classified employees in international hotel chains into three types (shown on Table 2.7). Table 2.8 presents reviewed articles published in leading trade journals relating to cross-cultural issues in the hotel industry.

Table 2.7: Types of employees in international hotel chains

Type	Definition	Strengths	Weakness
Parent country national (PCN)/Expatriate	Assigned from centralised management to an individual affiliated hotel which is situated in a different country	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Familiar with policies and practices of centralised management	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Unfamiliar with local culture• Low level of local language
Host country national (HCN)	Is of the nationality of the host country where the property is situated	<p>Familiar with local culture and policies;</p> <p>Proficient in local language</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Compared to a PCN, lower salary and position• Less familiar with policies and practices of central management
Third-country national (TCN)	Born and brought up neither in the host country nor in the parent country	Willing to accept a low-salary job, so it is easy for a TCN to get a job in hotels	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Low salary• Low skill levels

Source: Adapted from Ivanova et al., (2016)

Table 2.8: Journals and articles about cross-cultural issue

Journal	Author(s)
Annals of Tourism Research	Ivanov and Ivanova (2016)
Hospitality Management	Feng and Pearson (1999)
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	Barber and Pittaway (2000); Causin et al. (2011); D'Annunzio-Green (1997); D'Annunzio-Green (2002); Groschl (2011); Hon and Lu (2013); Janta (2011); Jayawardena (2000)
International Journal of Hospitality Management	Causin and Ayoun (2011); Chen et al. (2012); Fisher et al. (2010); Groschl and Doherty (2006); Hon et al. (2015); Hon and Lu (2010); Li (1996); Miao et al. (2011); Roper et al. (1997)
International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration	Dewald and Self (2008); Fisher and Beatson (2002)
Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism	Hu et al. (2002); Mejia et al. (2015); Mejia et al. (2016)
Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Management	Ozdemir and Cizel (2007)
Journal of China Tourism Research	Chan et al. (2016)
Tourism Management	Hope (2004)
Tourism Analysis	Lee (2015)
Worldwide Hospitality & Tourism Themes	Cecchi and Nwosu (2016); Taiwo and Ward (2016)
Other Journals	Goby et al. (2002); Jassawalla et al. (2004); Kaye and Taylor (1997); Littrell (2002); Matic et al. (2016); Sincoff et al. (2009); Tungli and Peiperl (2009)

Research into cross-cultural conflict is more complicated and multi-faceted than the issue of employee turnover. Some researchers (such as Roper et al., 1997; Fisher and Beatson, 2002; Ivanov and Ivanova, 2016) have analysed the impact of culture on the performance of international hotel chains and/or their affiliated hotels. Groschl and Doherty (2006) identify the differences between British and French managers in UK-based international hotel chains. Many researchers have chosen to focus on expatriate workers (e.g. Barber and Pittaway, 2000; Causin and Ayoun, 2011; Cecchi and Nwosu, 2016; D'Annunzio-Green, 1997; D'Annunzio-Green, 2002; Dewald and Self, 2008; Feng and Pearson, 1999; Hon and Lu, 2010; Hon et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2002; Jayawardena, 2000; Li, 1996; Li, 2015; Miao et al., 2011; Mejia et al., 2015; Mejia et al., 2016; Matić et al., 2016; Ozdemir

and Cizel, 2007; Tungli and Peiperl, 2009). Table 2.7 indicates expatriate employees' levels of familiarity with the policies and practices of their centralised managements, and shows that expatriate staff may be assigned to overseas branches by centralised managements due to lack of qualified candidates at local level, or the need for them to transfer knowledge and skills to affiliated hotels (D'Annunzio-Green, 2002; Mejia et al., 2015; Ivanova et al., 2016; Tungli and Peiperl, 2009). Therefore, in general, expatriate staff who are appointed to overseas sites tend to be appointed to managerial positions (Ozdemir and Cizel, 2007). However, overcoming culture shock is a challenge for expatriate workers (D'Annunzio-Green, 2002; Miao et al., 2011; Mejia et al., 2015). Cultural differences can be classified as values, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours (Miao et al., 2011). The research of Feng and Pearson (1999) indicated that poor adaptability to the new environment, individual personality, and lack of motivation to work are the main reasons for the failure of expatriate hotel managers in their roles. When they fail, they need to be repatriated, with some choosing to leave the company (Causin and Ayoun, 2011; Ozdemir and Cizel, 2007).

Addressing the issue of cross-cultural conflict, many researchers continue to see training as an effective IHRM strategy to develop a successful expatriate employee (e.g. Causin et al., 2011; D'Annunzio-Green, 1997; Devine et al., 2007; Dewald and Self, 2008; Hu et al., 2002; Li, 1996; Mejia et al., 2016, Tungli and Peiperl, 2009). In the 1990s few studies focused on cross-cultural training or analysis of other HRM strategies (such as D'Annunzio-Green, 1997; Feng and Pearson 1999; Li, 1996). Post 2000, cross-cultural training for the staff of international hotel chains has gradually increased in scope. Hu et al. (2002) indicate that cross-cultural training (CCT) helps expatriates to adapt to their new environment and alleviates culture shock. In other words, insufficient cross-cultural training tends to lead to expatriate hotel employees' failure (Hu et al., 2002). CCT includes language training, cross-cultural awareness, host country/regional induction,

teamwork facilitation, etc. (Dewald and Self, 2008). Tungli and Peiperl (2009) divide CCT into language training, country-specific CCT and general CCT. They compile data from 136 MNCs in Germany, Japan, UK, and the US to demonstrate that Japanese- and German-based companies tend to address the need for language training, while UK- and US-based companies tend to focus on general cross-cultural training. It appears that each country has its own attitude towards CCT. Causin et al. (2011) surveyed 66 employees of international hotels, reporting that their participants found that training in cross-cultural sensitivity and cultural diversity tended to be ineffective. They describe seven training foci including cross-cultural communication and cross-cultural negotiation which may provide effective CCT. In addition to the needs of expatriate staff, local employees may still need to be trained in optimal working attitudes and methods (Ivanova et al., 2016).

(3) Discussion

As previously explained, high employee turnover rates and cross-cultural conflict are two challenging issues for HRM in IHCs. Staff turnover is linked to employees' general levels of job satisfaction, while cross-cultural conflict might affect expatriate employees' performance. Both issues clearly affect all staff regardless of their job role or individual characteristics. After a critical review, it is indicated that the prevalent IHRM strategy in mitigating employee turnover and cross-cultural conflict-based problems at international hotel chains is training, but psychological approaches such as motivation and stress management, aiming to address common demotivators, remain rare in the hotel industry. This study therefore aims to fill this gap. The following Chapter refers to the publication *Tourism Tribune*, which provides information on China's international hotel chains.

2.4 Employee job performance and satisfaction in the hotel industry

As previously mentioned, high employee turnover rates and cross-cultural conflict are two challenging issues linked to employee job performance and satisfaction levels in IHCs. The service-oriented nature of the hotel industry means that employees' behaviour and attitudes are critical for the delivery of high levels of service quality to customers (Amissah et al., 2016). According to Armstrong and Taylor (2017), employees' behaviour and attitudes are reflected in their job performance and satisfaction. Details of their findings are presented in Section Three.

2.4.1 The definition of an 'employee'

According to CIPD (2017), employees are defined as those who work under an employment contract that is made by writing, orally, or both, but must be in writing within two months of the commencement of their employment. Numerous previous studies (e.g. Akgunduz, 2015; Amin et al., 2017; Amissah et al., 2016; Chiang et al., 2005; Jung and Yoon, 2015; Karatepe, 2012; Nadda et al., 2014; Pan, 2015; Salanova et al., 2005) have focused on employees at the lowest levels of the hotel industry; supervisors and managers are not included as employees. Gallardo et al. (2010) and Lam et al. (2001) researched employee satisfaction by collecting data exclusively from human resource or general managers. Lu et al. (2016) compared job satisfaction between employees and supervisors. Aksu and Aktas (2005) investigated the job satisfaction of managers in the hotel industry. Karatepe (2013a), Karatepe (2013b), and Yang (2010) focused only on front-line employees. Therefore, this study fills this research gap by investigating and assessing all levels of employees, including non-supervisory employees, supervisors, department managers, directors, and general managers.

2.4.2 Employee job performance

Brumback (1988, p. 387) explains that “performance means both behaviours and results. Behaviours emanate from the performer and transform performance from abstraction to action. Not just the instrument for results, behaviours are also outcomes in their own right – the product of mental and physical effort applied to tasks – and can be judged apart from results”. In short, performance consists of what has been done, and how it has been done (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). Similarly, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) categorise two kinds of employee job performance: task performance which is related to results and organisational goals and conceptual performance which is evidenced by employees’ efforts. For an organisation’s development, understanding of how to enhance employees’ performance is critical, because high-performing staff are needed for an organisation to achieve its goals and retain commercial competitiveness in its market (Akgunduz, 2015). For employees themselves, achievement of high job performance enhances their career potential in their industry (Akgunduz, 2015). Smith and Goddard (2002) observe that good employee performance at work is required for the consistency of an organisation’s global strategy.

Some researchers seek to identify general measures of job performance (e.g. Becker et al., 1996; Bartram, 2005; Campbell et al., 1996; Ramaswami and Singh, 2003; Williams and Anderson, 1991). A system using nine categories to measure employees’ performance (quality of work, quantity of work, speed of work, ability, task fulfilment, job requirement fulfilment, cooperation with supervisors, attendance rate, and overall performance) is commonly-used in the workplace (Becker et al., 1996; Ramaswami and Singh, 2003; Williams and Anderson, 1991). Bartram (2005) produced a meta-analysis of 29 validation studies to prove that the Great Eight competency factors proposed by Kurz and Bartram (2002) were valid as a general measure of job performance (leading

and deciding, supporting and cooperating, interacting and presenting, analysing and interpreting, creating and conceptualising, organising and executing, adapting and coping, and enterprising and performing). Campbell et al. (1996) proposed eight factors which were necessary for the measurement of the performance of all jobs (job-specific ‘core’ task proficiency, non-job-specific proficiency, written and oral communication, demonstrating effort, maintaining discipline, facilitating peer/team performance, supervision/leadership, and management/administration).

As previously explained, researchers’ views on performance measurement vary, despite their common desire to propose a common mechanism for the measurement of job performance. It is clear that there is no common determining measure of job performance applicable to all employees and industries, and different organisations and industries have differing criteria for good and poor employee job performance (Arnold et al., 2016). Performance evaluation may be influenced by the subjective views of evaluators or superiors, demonstrated by the ‘halo and horns’ effect (Arnold et al., 2016). Therefore, developing an understanding of how to enhance employee job performance remains a significant challenge for all industries (Campbell, 2012). To begin to understand evaluation of performance in the hotel industry, review of relevant articles in tourism and hospitality publications is essential.

In the service-oriented hotel industry, service quality is a critical factor for a hotel or hotel chain, in order to retain competitive market advantage (Chiang and Birtch, 2010). Desirable service quality, such as successfully dealing with customers’ requirements and problems, gives a positive impression to customers and encourages their loyalty, thus performance is linked to service quality in this industry (Karatepe, 2013a). To deliver high-quality service, front-line staff play a critical role (Amin et al., 2017; Yang, 2010). Karatepe (2012) gives two main reasons for the importance of front-line employees’ role

in the delivery of high-quality service: firstly, they represent their hotels in direct interaction with customers which contributes to raising the profile of their hotels or hotel chains, and retaining and attracting more customers; secondly, front-line employees dealing with customers' requests and complaints are able to give hotels or hotel chains constructive recommendations about how to enhance service quality. Equally, good performance of background staff who have little interaction with customers is important for a hotel's service quality delivery, because front-line staff delivering high-quality service cannot achieve this without the effective support of their background colleagues (Li et al., 2012). Using the human resource management function as an example, these staff are required to design effective systems for the improvement of the work quality of front-line employees. Therefore, research on employee performance should focus on both those at the front line and in the background.

The survey of Salanova et al. (2005), conducted in Spain, found that organisational resources (training, autonomy, and technology), and work engagement levels were clearly linked to employee performance. Karatepe (2013a), researching in Romania, collected data via questionnaires and utilised structural equation modelling to demonstrate that training, empowerment, and rewards had a positive relationship to good job performance. Karatepe (2013b) identified that there was a positive relationship between performance and task overload and unfavourable work/life balance. Nadda et al. (2014) conducted research in the UK, establishing that recruitment policy, rewards, information sharing, training, and career development were critical indicators of performance. Akgunduz (2015) used responses to 227 questionnaires in Turkish hotels to demonstrate that role ambiguity and role conflict impact negatively on performance, but role overload and self-esteem impact positively on performance. In short, training and rewards are the most commonly-identified factors which contribute to job performance in the hotel industry in

different countries, but it remains necessary to bear individual relevant factors in mind when evaluating performance.

2.4.3 Employee job satisfaction

Employee job satisfaction is among the most prevalent research topics in the HRM sector (Thomas and Au, 2002). According to Armstrong and Taylor (2017), job satisfaction concerns people's attitudes towards their employment; positive attitudes towards their work enhance job satisfaction, while negative attitudes reduce it. Cherrington (1994)'s research findings indicate that the concept of job satisfaction can be understood from two sources: facet satisfaction and overall satisfaction. Facet satisfaction can be gained from a variety of job features (e.g. pay, supervisors, or work challenges), and overall satisfaction can be gained from general internal state (Cherrington, 1994). Working with supportive colleagues, receiving generous pay, and having understanding managers merciful are all factors conducive to the development of a positive internal state (Amissah et al., 2016).

Because job satisfaction is related to employees' psychological states, individuals with positive attitudes towards their jobs can make a positive contribution to colleagues' psychological health (Amissah et al., 2016). Good psychological health motivates employees to work harder to improve their performance (Arnold et al., 2016). Many researchers (e.g. Aksu and Aktas, 2005; Gu and Siu, 2009; Karatepe, 2012; Matzler et al., 2004; Rich et al., 2010; Ziegler et al., 2012) confirm that job satisfaction had a positive impact on performance. Additionally, job satisfaction impacts on employee intention (Gu and Siu, 2009). Employees with lower job satisfaction are more likely to leave organisations (Choi, 2006). Overall, understanding the nature of job satisfaction and how

to enhance this for staff is equally as important as good employee performance for an organisation.

Numerous studies have considered methods to enhance employees' job satisfaction. Arnold et al. (2016) and Armstrong and Taylor (2017) concluded that intrinsic motivators, related to job content such as the job characteristics model by Hackman and Oldham, were crucial for the improvement job satisfaction. Leadership plays a significant role in the improvement of job satisfaction (Amundsen and Martinsen, 2014; Mathieu et al., 2014). Standard economic theory shows that payment, working hours and patterns, and other job-specific and worker-specific characteristics strongly influence job satisfaction (Vila and Garcia-Mora, 2005). Harel and Tzafrir (1999) and Lee et al. (2006) identify training as a prerequisite for job satisfaction. However, there are no consistent measures that are used to assess and improve job satisfaction across all sectors of industry (Gallardo et al., 2010). Therefore, in order to analyse job satisfaction in the hotel industry, review of the majority of relevant literature in the field of hospitality field is necessary.

In its industry, employee job satisfaction plays an important role in the success of a hotel or a hotel chain. Firstly, the hotel industry is a people-oriented business, meaning that mistakes, failures, and customer complaints may be frequent occurrences, therefore an understanding of employees' feelings and attitudes is essential to support employees' positive attitudes and to reduce the negative effects of the challenges they experience (Karatepe et al., 2003; Lam et al., 2001). Secondly, in the hotel industry, service quality directly impacts on customers' satisfaction and loyalty (Choi, 2006). Employees with high levels of job satisfaction can maintain their performance at work and then deliver a high level of service quality (Yeh, 2013). Thirdly, employee job satisfaction is expected to be a necessary factor in the cultivation of organisational commitment which is essential for organisational success in today's fiercely- competitive environment (Garcia-Almeida

et al., 2015). Fourthly, employee satisfaction is linked to employee turnover rates (Gu and Siu, 2009). Because the hotel industry has one of the highest employee turnover rates of all sectors, the question of how to reduce this remains a key research topic (Choi, 2006). In previous studies, many researchers (e.g. Herrbach et al., 2004; Mueller and Price, 1990; Smidts et al., 2001; van Knippenberg and van Schie, 2000) have identified the fact that job satisfaction has a weak or indirect impact on staff mobility intention, however this research did not specifically target the hospitality industry. Yang (2010) conducted a survey in 11 international hotels, the findings of which demonstrate that job satisfaction has a direct and negative impact on employee mobility intentions. Zopiatis et al. (2014) analysed responses to 1500 questionnaires in order to identify the direct and negative relationships between job satisfaction and employee turnover rates. However, their research simply verified that extrinsic job satisfaction (e.g. pay, working environment, and leadership) directly impacts on staff turnover rates, but their hypothesis about the link to intrinsic job satisfaction (e.g. job itself) was not supported.

Due to the importance of employee job satisfaction to a hotel or hotel chain, research into the factors which enhance job satisfaction in the hotel industry is very important. The research of Lam et al. (2001) demonstrates that the majority of respondents considered that pay was the most important determinant of job satisfaction, while respondents who believed that leadership was the least important determinant of job satisfaction were best-represented in the hotel industry. However, some researchers (e.g. Amissah, 2016; Wu et al., 2017) highlight the importance of high-quality leadership for employee job satisfaction. The research of Amissah et al. (2016) used 190 valid completed questionnaires from employees of Ghanaian hotels to demonstrate that remuneration, leadership, and promotion prospects were significantly linked to job satisfaction. Wu et al. (2017) collected data from 25 hotels in Malaysia, reporting that leadership has a critical impact on employees' job satisfaction.

Numerous additional researchers (Chiang and Birtch, 2010; Cruz et al., 2014; Gallardo et al., 2010; Pan, 2015) report that pay levels are consistently closely-linked to job satisfaction, even though their research was conducted in a range of different regions or countries. Chiang and Birtch (2010) used both quantitative and qualitative methods to demonstrate the fact that pay plays an important role in job attitudes and satisfaction in Hong Kong. Gallardo et al. (2010) analysed 2524 valid responses to questionnaires from 165 hotels in Spain and 23 hotels in Portugal, reporting that remuneration was a highly-significant determinant of job satisfaction in the two countries. Cruz et al. (2014) also researched job satisfaction in the Spanish hospitality industry, finding that payment positively influences job satisfaction. Pan (2015) considered research data from international hotel chains in Taiwan and used importance-performance analysis to demonstrate that pay was the top concern which needed to be addressed in order to improve job satisfaction.

In addition to the above findings relating to payment and leadership, Chiang et al.'s survey-based research (2005) indicated that training was positively linked to job satisfaction. Jung and Yoon (2015) researched the influence of psychological capital on job satisfaction, finding that employees' levels of hope and optimism had an important impact on their job satisfaction. Further, Sledge et al. (2008) concluded that motivation was the primary influential factor of employee job satisfaction.

2.4.4 Potential relationships between employee job performance and satisfaction

The above content has indicated that employees with high levels of job satisfaction are more willing to work harder and to try to improve their job performance (e.g. Aksu and Aktas, 2005; Gu and Siu, 2009; Karatepe, 2012; Matzler et al., 2004; Rich et al., 2010; Ziegler et al., 2012). This finding is also applicable to the hospitality industry. Gu and

Siu's survey of staff at Macao's casino hotels (2009) found that job satisfaction led to improvement in performance. Yeh (2013) mentions that, for front-line employees, job satisfaction played an important role in maintenance of their performance and quality of the service they delivered (Yeh, 2013).

However, the relationship between job performance and satisfaction is a two-way process, meaning that good performance in itself may lead to job satisfaction (Arnold et al., 2016). Judge et al. (2001) identify six possible links between job performance and satisfaction through qualitative review, specifically: job satisfaction leading to job performance, job performance leading to job satisfaction, reciprocal relationship, spurious relationship, moderation by variable(s), and alternative conceptualisations of job satisfaction and/or job performance.

Many studies (Aksu and Aktas, 2005; Gu and Siu, 2009; Karatepe, 2012; Matzler et al., 2004; Rich et al., 2010; Yeh, 2013; Ziegler et al., 2012) have demonstrated that employee job satisfaction has a positive impact on job performance in the hotel industry. However, relevant research in relation to employee job performance leading to job satisfaction remains scant. Among the other four relationships, there are two types which concern the moderating and mediating effects of the links between employee performance and job satisfaction. According to Judge et al. (2001), moderating effects on the relationship between employee job performance and satisfaction were generally the foci for the relevant research, with remuneration. Job characteristics, and self-esteem being among the most common-researched moderators. Undeniably, the existence of 'spurious relationship' shows means that the link between performance and job satisfaction is made when the third variable influences both factors simultaneously (Cohen and Cohen, 1983). In this way, employee job performance/satisfaction can mediate the relationship between employee job satisfaction/performance and the third variable. According to Hair et al.

(2017) and Sarstedt et al. (2014), mediation, which presents the indirect relationships among correlated constructs, takes place when a third construct (also known as mediator) has an impact on the relationship between two other correlated constructs. A critical review of relevant literature indicates little research on whether employee job performance is a mediator of the relationship between job satisfaction and a third variable, thus this study focuses on this question.

2.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, this Chapter primarily provides a review of the literature relevant to the link between employee job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in general, as the first stage towards achievement of the first objective of Aim One of this study. Prior to reviewing employee job performance and satisfaction, this Chapter provides the specific definition of IHCs for the purposes of this study, which is hotel branches in worldwide locations being operated under the same brand, with at least one common centralised function across all affiliated properties. After a critical review of the literature relevant to employee job performance and satisfaction, this study assesses two associated challenging HRM issues (high turnover rate and cross-cultural conflict) for IHCs, indicating training as the most prevalent IHRM strategy for the mitigation of these two HRM issues.

This initial review also identifies several research gaps: firstly, few studies have utilised psychological approaches (e.g. motivation, stress management) to identify which IHR strategies are effective to mitigate the two key HRM issues related to employee job performance and satisfaction; secondly, published literature which concerns all levels of staff (non-supervisory employees, supervisors, department managers, directors, and general managers) remains scant; thirdly, many previous studies demonstrate that

employee job satisfaction has a positive impact on performance in the hotel industry, but little research has considered how employee job performance leads to satisfaction; finally, few studies have sought to investigate and assess whether employee job performance mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and a third variable. This Chapter is a foundation for the following Chapter, which provides details of employee job performance and satisfaction in international hotel chains in China.

Chapter 3 Employee job performance and satisfaction at international hotel chains in China

3.1 Introduction

International hotel chains (IHCs) are increasing the scale of their operations and properties in China year on year (Zhu and Lv, 2011). However, along with the expansion of IHCs in China and the rapid development of Chinese domestic hotels, IHCs' operations in China are facing serious challenges in terms of employee job performance and satisfaction. The time has come for IHCs to focus on employee job performance and satisfaction in order to retain competitive advantage in China. Based on Chapter 2, which reviewed employee job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in general, this Chapter links to the Chinese environment. Specifically, this Chapter addresses the second and third objectives of Aim One (proposing a theoretical model of the structural relationships among employee autonomous motivation, performance, and job satisfaction at IHCs in China). The second objective is to provide a review of the development of the Chinese hotel industry and IHCs within China. This objective is achieved in this Chapter. The third objective is to provide a review of employee motivation, the role of autonomy in motivation, performance and job satisfaction at IHCs in China. This objective is achieved through the two stages. This Chapter provides a review of relevant literature in relation to employee performance and job satisfaction at IHCs in China, as the first stage to meeting the third objective.

This Chapter consists of four Sections. Section One reviews the development of the Chinese hotel industry and IHCs in China. Section Two provides a review of the challenging HRM issues which relate to employee job performance and satisfaction at IHCs linked to the Chinese environment. Section Three systematically reviews employee

job performance and satisfaction in the Chinese hotel industry. This Chapter concludes with Section Four.

3.2 Development of the Chinese hotel industry and IHCs in China

According to the Yearbook of China Tourism Statistics (CNTA, 2016), Chinese domestic and inbound tourists' spending amounted to 4 billion and 0.134 billion respectively in 2015, which separately increased by 10 % and 4.1 % compared to the previous year. At the end of 2015, the Chinese hotel industry had made a direct contribution of 7.34 trillion RMB to GDP, which represented 10.8 % of GDP (CNTA, 2016). This data demonstrates that the Chinese hotel industry has continually developed and played an important role in Chinese economy. China has become one of the top four international destination countries since 2010, and the World Tourism Organisation expects China to become the largest international destination country in 2020 (Zhang et al., 2012).

International hotel groups and their chains entering and operating in China play a significant role in the rapid growth of the general hotel industry in China. IHCs' entry has attracted capital investment and has introduced advanced management systems, marketing strategies and expatriate staff to the Chinese hotel sector. IHCs have a strong global brand effect so that tourists, particularly from overseas, are drawn to a destination which has a known IHCs' hotel (Ma and Li, 2009). After a critical review of relevant literature to tourism and hospitality, this study divides the development of the Chinese hotel industry into six stages, which include the growth of IHCs in China. The details are presented in the following Section.

3.2.1 First stage (1949-1978)

The first stage, from 1949 to 1978, was the beginning of the establishment of People's Republic of China (Gross et al., 2013). Tourism was mainly used at this stage as a means of attracting publicity to Chinese political and socialism (Han, 1994). During this period, the whole country was focused on internal political conflicts and was not aware of the laws of economic development, which led to serious constraints on the development of the tourism and hospitality sector (Hung, 2013; Pine and Qi, 2003). Particularly in the period of the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution (1966-1976), China implemented a 'closed door' policy (Huang, 2009), which meant that little foreign investment was made in the Chinese market, and IHCs were not represented (Pang et al., 1998). At the end of this stage, there were only 76,192 beds available in 203 hotels, most of which were state-owned (Sun, 1992). There were few qualified and/or highly-skilled staff in the Chinese hotel industry (Ma and Li, 2009).

3.2.2 Second stage (1978-1985)

The second stage was from 1978 to 1985, when the 'Open Door' policy was introduced and implemented so that foreign investment into the hotel industry was able to begin (Tsang and Hsu, 2011). This was the preliminary developmental phase for international hotel groups and their chains in China (Yu, 2006). In 1982, Beijing Jianguo Hotel introduced the management system of Peninsula Hong Kong, which was the first joint-venture hotel in China under contract management representing the beginning of international hotel groups' entry to China (Kong, 2009; Liu and Zhang, 2011; Pine, 2002). In 1984, the first Holiday Inn hotel opened in Beijing; this was the first Western international hotel chain operation in China (IHG, 2017a; Xu, 2015). In 1985, Sheraton

entered China, as the first American international chain hotel operational in the country (Sheraton, 2017).

As increasing numbers of international hotel groups and their chains entered China, advanced management techniques and excellent management staff were gradually introduced into the country, meaning that the Chinese hotel industry experienced rapid development and movement towards international standardisation (Guillet et al., 2011; Kong and Cheung, 2009; Ma and Li, 2009). The number of hotels rose to 710 by the end of 1985 (CNTA, 2002). During that period, the majority of international hotel chains adopted ‘management contract’ as their entry mode in China. Their properties, generally of luxury rating standard (Yu, 2006), were mainly distributed across Eastern economic region (e.g. Beijing, Shanghai, Guangdong, and Zhejiang).

3.2.3 Third stage (1986-1991)

In 1986, the Seventh Five-year National Plan was introduced, recognising tourism and hospitality as a critical part of Chinese social and economic growth. This was the beginning of the third stage of development in the hotel industry (Tsang and Hsu, 2011). From 1986 to 1991, the Chinese government invested RMB 6 billion (about US\$1.25 at the 1990 exchange rate) into the hotel industry, adopting policies favourable to foreign investment in the hotel industry (Pine et al., 2000). In 1988, a star rating system was introduced by CNTA, which played a useful role in promoting standardisation and specialisation in the Chinese hotel sector, providing a framework allowing hotels to compare and compete with one another (Zhang et al., 2005). By 1989, the total number of hotels had increased to 1788 (Yu, 1992).

During this phase, IHCs underwent rapid development, management contracts continued to be used by IHCs, and their branches were mainly located in China's Eastern economic region (Yu, 2006). According to the National Bureau of Statistics of China (2011), Chinese economic regions are divided into East, West, Central and Northeast. Table 3.1 presents the classification details of the four economic regions. As analysed in Chapter Two, economy and policy were two key determinants of location choice for IHCs. In terms of economy, Wu et al., (1998) showed that economic factors accounted for 80% of the decision-making regarding of IHCs' expansion. Within this 80%, 50% was due to promising economic prospects and growing social prosperity, representing an impact of 30 % (Wu et al., 1998).

Table 3.1: Four economic regions of China

Economic region	Province/municipality
East	Beijing, Tianjin, Hebei, Shanghai, Jiangsu, Zhejiang, Fujian, Shandong, Guangdong, Hainan
Central	Shanxi, Anhui, Jiangxi, Henan, Hubei, Hunan
West	Inner Mongolia, Guangxi, Chongqing, Sichuan, Guizhou, Yunnan, Tibet, Shaanxi, Gansu, Qinghai, Ningxia, Xinjiang
Northeast	Liaoning, Jilin, Heilongjiang

In China, almost all economically developed cities are located in the Eastern economic region (Zhang et al., 2012). For example, Beijing is the capital city as well as the central national city, while Shanghai is the economic centre of China (China, 2005). These cities are situated in the east of China. Premises of IHCs in Beijing and Shanghai had been ranked ahead since the implementation of the 'open door' policy (Yu, 2006; Zhang et al., 2012). Wang (2006) observed that IHCs considered per capita GDP and disposable income when selecting locations.

Policy was also a critical determinant of IHCs' location choice (Wu et al., 1998; Wei et al., 1999). The Chinese 'Open Door' policy favourably attracted significant investment by IHCs (Wu et al., 1998). Li and Park (2006, p.102) reported that the Chinese Government had established "special economic zones, open coastal cities, economic and technological development zones, free trade zones, border economic cooperative zones, and export processing zones" since the early 1980s, which were given privileges, such as subsidies and tax breaks, to attract foreign direct investment (FDI). The first of these zones was in the Eastern economic region (Li and Park, 2006).

Apart from factors of economy and policy, political environment, inbound tourism, tourist spending, tourist attractions, mega-events (e.g. Olympic Games, the World Cup), and infrastructure were also important factors for the decision of IHCs' location (Zhang et al., 2012). Altinay (2005) suggested that IHCs comprehensively considered determinants of location choice, because these exerted mutual influence. For example, a strong economy would promote the development of a country or region's infrastructure, and developing the expertise to host mega-events is linked to appropriate economic and political environments; Beijing is not only an economically-developed city, but is also known for tourism.

During this stage, IHCs' recruitment requirements were very high. For example, employees at Hilton hotels were required to have a bachelor's degree or diploma and to be able to speak English fluently (Shanghai Hilton International, 1986). At this time, there were few potential employees who could speak English and had obtained a bachelor's degree or diploma.

3.2.4 Fourth stage (1992-2000)

By early 1992, Deng Xiaoping, during a return visit to South China, announced the widening of economic reform and the ‘open door’ policy (Zhang et al., 2005). This was the dawn of the fourth stage of the development of the Chinese hotel industry. The total number of hotels had increased from 203 in 1978 to 5201 in 1997 (Pine et al., 2000). Pine et al. (2000) explain that 10% of the top 300 IHCs entered the Chinese market in 1999. By 2000, nine of the top ten international hotel groups had established their chains in China (Yu, 2006). Although IHCs, as foreign investment entrants to China, were encouraged, the Chinese Government retained a high level of control over businesses (Pine and Qi, 2004). At this stage, hotel industry pay levels started to be decided by market demand and supply, rather than central government (Zhang et al., 2005).

3.2.5 Fifth stage (2001-2008)

In 2001, China joined the World Trade Organisation (WTO), and the level of control held over businesses by the Chinese Government fell rapidly, enabling them to have up to 100 % foreign ownership (Zhang et al., 2005). Due to entry into the WTO, foreign investors obtained greater privileges (Pine, 2002); international hotel groups were optimistic due to the developing economic environment of China, and increased the pace of investment in China (Ma and Li, 2009). The volume of research into the Chinese hotel industry sector increased rapidly after the country joined the WTO (Kong and Cheung, 2009). Joining the WTO marked a new stage in the development of the Chinese hotel industry.

According to Yu (2006), at the fifth stage, IHCs’ operations in China entered a new phase of development, described as the ‘comprehensive development phase’. In this phase, IHCs expanded from the Eastern economic region to Central and Western economic

regions (Kou, 2015; Zhu, 2017), mainly due to the rapid development in the regional economies. Tourism grew rapidly in the Central and Western economic regions in 2000s, and the two regions' potential was seen by IHCs (Zhang et al., 2012). In the case of the city of Chongqing in the Western economic region, there has been rapid economic development since it became a municipality in 1997; the Hilton and InterContinental groups entered Chongqing in 2002 and 2006 respectively (Hilton, 2017). Additionally, local authorities in the Central and Western regions implemented policies which encouraged and attracted foreign investment; in Gansu Province, all groups were originally required to pay 15% income tax, but this was waived for groups involved in foreign investment for their first two years; Shanxi had set up special economic and technological development zones in which FDIs enjoyed tax breaks (Zhang et al., 2012). This was also an important reason why IHCs were willing to increase their investment in Central and Western regions post 2000 (Zhang et al., 2012). Employee localisation became a key issue for IHCs operational in China at this stage (Yu, 2006).

3.2.6 Sixth stage (2008-present)

Since 2008, a series of mega-events (the Beijing Olympic Games in 2008, the Shanghai World Expo in 2010, the Guangzhou Asian Games in 2010) have been held in China, which have provided excellent opportunities for the development of the Chinese hotel industry (Dogru, 2016; Guillet et al., 2011). When a city hosts a mega-event, a large number of visitors will attend, and increased hotel capacity is required (Zhang et al., 2012). For example, Beijing, the city which hosted the Olympic Games, needed 130,000 hotel rooms, including more than 22,300 rooms in four- and five-star hotels (International Olympic Committee, 2001). Mega-events also attract large numbers of foreign visitors who prefer IHCs (Ma and Li, 2009). Mega-events held in China have given foreign visitors a deeper understanding of China and the Chinese economy.

Until 2010, 70 chains of 40 international hotel groups (including the top ten) were operational in the Chinese market (Zhu and Lv, 2011). The latest Year Book of Chinese Tourism Statistics confirms that foreign-funded groups (not including Hong Kong, Macao, and Taiwan) within the Chinese hotel sector numbered 203 in 2015 (CNTA, 2016). 741 new hotels operated by InterContinental, Marriott, Hilton, Windham, and Accor have opened between 2014 and 2019 (Chan et al., 2016b). In terms of human resourcing, employee localisation increased at this stage, but there remained a lack of qualified staff at management level (Bao, 2013; Chan et al., 2016b), despite recruitment requirements being much lower than previously within IHCs' operations in China (Chen, 2015).

Management contract remains the most prevalent entry mode adopted by IHCs entering the Chinese market (Li, 2017; Xu, 2015; Zhang, 2014). Franchising has become the most popular global business expansion strategy in more than 30 industries since 2000, and it is also the most commonly-adopted global entry mode for IHCs (Xiao et al., 2008; Yu, 2006). Using IHG as an example, during 2018, 4615 properties of IHG's hotel chains adopted franchising as their entry mode, while management contract was used for only 965 hotels (IHG, 2018). In contrast, the extent to which franchising was adopted by the Chinese hotel industry remains very low. In Greater China, among a total of 391 hotels of IHG's international chains in 2018, only 36 are franchised, representing 9.2%, while others have management contract as their entry mode (IHG, 2018).

During the preliminary phase of IHCs' entry to China, both facilities and staff skill levels were very low in the Chinese hotel industry, meaning that domestic Chinese hotels' ownerships did not meet the requirements to become franchisees (Chen, 2005). If IHCs adopted franchising as their entry mode, they would obtain chains' branding, but not be in overall management control of the chains' hotels, and their image could be negatively

influenced (Zhang, 2014). Instead, the management contract option offers higher levels of control over individually-affiliated hotels, thus uniform quality of hotel service can be guaranteed and the negative influence on a chains' image can be avoided (Pine et al., 2000). Yu (2006) observed that the legislative system of Chinese property ownership was unclear, and management systems in the Chinese hotel industry were not robust, therefore IHCs lacked the faith of their owners and were unwilling to adopt franchising systems. However, the trend towards franchising as an entry mode for IHCs has increased with the maturity of the Chinese hotel industry, and there has been increased investment in hotels in China because franchising has provided a way in which both risk and cost can be kept low for investors in budget hotels (Yu, 2006; Xiao et al., 2008; Zhang, 2014). The first franchised Holiday Inn Express (a business brand of IHG) was opened on 26th March 2017 (IHG, 2017b). According to IHG in 2018, their number of franchised hotels rose from 11 to 36, an increase of 69.4%. Therefore, the use of franchising in IHCs' operations in China is worthy of further research. Additionally, IHCs which were willing to establish hotels required central government permission, and normally operated hotels as joint ventures rather than wholly-owned entities (Wong et al., 2005). For example, there is no privately-owned hotel belonging to any IHG hotel in Greater China (IHG, 2018). Table 3.2 presents a summary of the development of the Chinese hotel industry:

Table 3.2: Summary of the development of the Chinese hotel industry

Stage One (1949-1978)	Tourism was mainly used for the purposes of Chinese political and socialist publicity. There was no presence of IHCs. There were few qualified or highly-skilled staff in the Chinese hotel industry.
Stage Two (1978-1985)	The ‘Open Door’ policy was introduced and implemented. In 1982, the Beijing Jianguo Hotel introduced Peninsula Hong Kong’s management system. This was the first joint-venture hotel in China. Holiday Inn and Sheraton entered China in 1984 and 1985 respectively. Highly-skilled management staff were gradually introduced in China.
Stage Three (1986-1991)	The Seventh Five-year National Plan was introduced, regarding tourism and hospitality as a critical part of Chinese social and economic growth. IHCs’ hotels were mainly distributed in Eastern economic regions at luxury standard, and operated by management contract. Recruitment requirements of IHCs were very high.
Stage Four (1992-2000)	In the early 1992, Deng Xiaoping returned to Southern China, announcing wider economic reform and an ‘open door’ policy. Pay levels in the hotel industry started to be decided by market forces of supply and demand rather than central government. In 2000, nine of the top ten international hotel groups had entered the Chinese market.
Stage Five (2001-2008)	In 2001, China joined the World Trade Organisation (WTO), and levels of Chinese government control over businesses decreased rapidly. International hotel groups increased the pace of their investment in China. IHCs expanded their operations from the Eastern economic region to the Central and Western economic regions. Employee localisation became a key issue for IHCs operating in China.
Stage Six (2008-present)	Since 2008, a series of mega-events have been held in China. Foreign-funded groups (not including Hong Kong, Macao, and Taiwan) in the Chinese hotel industry numbered 203 until 2015. Management contract was still the most common entry mode for IHCs. Employee localisation at this stage was increased by in IHCs operating in China, but recruitment requirements of recruitment were much lower than before.

Source: Adapted from Gross et al. (2013), Huang (2009), Tsang and Hsu (2011), Yu (2006), Zhang et al. (2005), and Zhang et al. (2012)

3.3 Challenging HRM issues related to employee job performance and satisfaction

Along with the development of the Chinese hotel industry and the expansion of IHCs in China, each IHC brand faces ever-fiercer competition, not only due to increasing numbers of competitor IHCs, but also because of the dramatic growth in numbers of domestic hotels (Li, 2017; Liu and Zhang, 2011). Armstrong and Taylor (2017) indicate that HRM is a key factor for organisations’ retention of competitive advantage. Some researchers

(e.g. Gross et al., 2013; Kong and Cheung, 2009; Law et al., 2014; Tsang et al., 2015; Tsang and Hsu, 2011) who have conducted systematic reviews of the Chinese hotel industry have found that HRM was among the key issues facing them. As explained in the previous Chapter, employee job performance and satisfaction as HRM issues play a critical role in the retention of competitive advantage in the hotel industry. In the Chinese context, the majority of IHCs' hotels are four- or five-star rated, therefore their staff are required to deliver high levels of service quality and develop wider technical skillsets (Li et al., 2012). Many researchers (e.g. Kong and Cheung, 2009; Tsang et al., 2015; Tsang and Hsu, 2011) have indicated that employee job performance is a key HRM issue for the Chinese hotel industry. However, employee job satisfaction in the Chinese hotel industry remains low (Duan et al., 2015; Kuang, 2013; Shao et al., 2009; Tian and Pu, 2008; Tang et al., 2013).

International hotel groups, as multinational corporations, are required to adopt IHRM policies in their China-based operational locations (Fisher and McPhail, 2011). This means that IHCs employ both the HRM policies and practices of their home countries and also adopt certain HRM policies and practices consistent with the Chinese situation (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017; Chan et al., 2016a; Chan et al., 2016b). In this way, to effectively enhance employee job performance and satisfaction, it is necessary to understand the HRM issues related to employee job performance and satisfaction in the Chinese hotel industry and IHCs' operations in China.

3.3.1 General development of Chinese HRM and IHCs

Prior to 1978, the term 'human resource management' was not used in China due to the 100% planned economy; instead, the term 'personnel management' was used (Zeng et al., 2008). Since the 1950s, 'three old irons' had been regarded as the Chinese labour

management system (Ding and Warner, 2001). This referred to the ‘iron rice bowl’ (life-time employment), ‘iron wage’ (fixed wage schemes), and ‘iron chair’ (managerial staff directly appointed by government authority) (Ding and Warner, 2001).

From 1978 to 1991, the first stage of reform of Chinese HRM, control of rights in terms of personnel and wage management was gradually removed from governmental authorities, meaning that enterprises’ autonomy began to increase (Zeng and Su, 2009). For example, Ding and Warner (2001) report that pay levels linked to companies’ performance began to be adopted. However, ‘three old irons’ remained in operation, and Chinese people were unaware of the term ‘human resource management’ at this stage (Zhao, 2009). Because these were the early days of the implementation of the ‘open door’ policy, the sector lacked talented employees and expatriate staff within IHCs, particularly as the majority were working at management level (Ma and Li, 2009; Yu, 2006). Between 1992 and 2000, the second stage of Chinese HRM reform, ‘three old irons’ was gradually discontinued, along with reforms of SOEs and rapid growth of private enterprise (Zeng et al., 2008). Increasing numbers of companies tried to improve HRM practices including recruitment, training, performance management, and reward, and many employees’ pay was linked to individual performance (Zhao, 2009).

More profound reform of Chinese HRM began in 2001, when China joined the WTO and the market economy system became fully established (Zhu and Warner, 2004; Zeng and Su, 2009). After joining the WTO, the number of foreign companies rose dramatically, which brought more advanced HRM practices to China (Zeng et al., 2008; Zheng and Lamond, 2009). However, due to China’s status as a socialist nation with national characteristics, HRM policies and practices of parent companies needed to be adapted to the Chinese environment on a practical level, and it is a challenge for IHCs to implement effective IHRM policies and practices (Zheng and Lamond, 2009). This has meant that,

since 2000, employee localisation in IHCs operational in China has become a key issue (Yu, 2006).

3.3.2 Employee localisation in IHCs

Selmer (2003, p.43) explains that employee localisation ‘refers to the extent to which jobs originally held by expatriates are filled by local employees who are competent to perform the job’. This is the process of developing highly-skilled local staff, and is a key factor of foreign enterprises’ success in China (Chan et al., 2016a). Along with the rapid development of the Chinese hotel industry, higher education programmes have provided many excellent students who have studied tourism and hospitality; hotels have also focused on the training of local staff (Yan, 2007). The Chinese Government has retained some restrictions on expatriate employees, and has encouraged IHCs to recruit local employees, representing an external factor which has influenced employee localisation in IHCs within China (Wong and Law, 1999; Yan, 2007).

In terms of internal factors, recruitment of more local employees can reduce IHCs’ costs (Chan et al., 2016a; Chan et al., 2016b). An expatriate manager is typically paid three times as much as a local employee (Selmer, 2003). Employee localisation has helped IHCs to develop a deeper understanding of, and adaptation to, the Chinese situation and culture, and it has attracted support from local authorities (Bao, 2013). However, localisation at management level remains uncommon in international luxury chains, and there remains a shortage of qualified or highly-skilled employees (Chan et al., 2016b). He et al., (2011) indicated that service quality requires further improvement, such as poor communication skills and slow response to customers’ needs, although the Chinese hotel industry has experienced rapid development since 1978. Thus, employee job performance

(e.g. service quality delivery) needs to be improved through the appointment of more qualified employees and the achievement of employee localisation in IHCs.

3.3.3 Cross-cultural conflicts

Although employee localisation is a key issue in China, the localisation progress at management level is not fast in luxury-standard IHCs (Chan et al., 2016b). Instead, luxury-standard IHCs in China tend to appoint expatriates to senior management positions, because they are familiar with the standard service systems of hotel chains, or they have a high level of professional skills in the industry (Chan et al., 2016a; Mejia et al., 2015; Yan et al., 2007). In contrast to expatriate managers, local managers are unfamiliar with central reservation systems, financial resource management systems, marketing strategy, and standard operating procedures, and they may lack professional industry skills (Mejia et al., 2015; Yan et al., 2007). However, expatriates are faced with challenges due to cultural differences (Hsu et al., 2012; Kaye and Taylor, 1997; Mejia et al., 2015; Mejia et al., 2016; Yan et al., 2007;). As noted in Chapter 2, failure to adjust to local culture results in some expatriate hotel managers having poor performance (Kaye and Taylor, 1997; Ozdemir and Cizel, 2007; Ivanova et al., 2016). If they fail, and return to their home country, this leads financial costs for hotel chains (Goby et al., 2002). The publications EBSCO *Host* and China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI), which are the leading journals of the tourism and hospitality industry, present some key articles on cross-cultural conflicts in the Chinese hotel industry (Chan et al., 2016a; Dewald and Self, 2008; Feng and Pearson, 1999; Goby et al., 2002; Hon and Lu, 2010; Hon and Lu, 2013; Kaye and Taylor, 1997; Li, 1996; Li et al., 2012; Legewie, 2002; Leung et al., 2001; Leung et al., 2009; Littrell, 2002; Miao et al., 2011; Mejia et al., 2015; Mejia et al., 2016; Sincoff et al., 2009).

Mejia et al. (2016) point out that ‘guanxi’ (social networking), ‘renqing’ (reciprocity), and ‘mianzi’ (face or dignity) were Chinese societal and business norms, therefore expatriate employees should have a thorough understanding of them in order to avoid workplace conflict. Chan et al. (2016a) indicate that interpersonal relationships, bureaucracy, and versatility were the principal causes of cultural conflicts in IHCs’ affiliated hotels in China. Expatriate employees with poor Chinese language skills were also at risk of these negatively influencing their performance and adaptation to Chinese environment (Dewald and Self, 2008). However, Littrell (2002) did not consider that fully mastering the language of the host country was requisite, although he accepted that some language acquisition helped expatriates to better adapt to local culture. In short, cross-cultural conflicts may negatively influence expatriates’ performance and job satisfaction.

Most reviewed articles which proposed measures to mitigate cross-cultural conflicts (Dewald and Self, 2008; Littrell, 2002; Mejia et al., 2015; Jassawalla et al., 2004) recommended training as an effective strategy. Dewald and Self (2008) concluded that cross-cultural training was requisite; the training should be for both expatriates and national staff. While clearly expatriates needed training in Chinese culture, language, and communication methods, national hotel staff should learn how to work co-operatively with expatriate colleagues (Dewald and Self, 2008). Littrell (2002) emphasised the importance of cultural training for expatriates; for example, expatriates need to understand the differences between Western leader-member exchange theory (LMX) and Chinese guanxi. Mejia et al. (2015) conducted a qualitative survey based on LMX theory, interviewing Western expatriate hotel chain managers in Hong Kong, Shenzhen, Shanghai, and Beijing. They demonstrated that one-to-one training in local culture and Mandarin was necessary in order to enhance the confidence of staff working in China. The limitation of their research is that it was conducted in the primary cities of China, and no data from secondary cities such as Chengdu, Chongqing, or Changsha was

included. In view of the increasing representation of international hotel chains in secondary cities, data collection from these cities is also of importance for this field of research. Further, Jassawalla et al. (2004) identified that language and cultural training did not address some problems, such as lack of general training and solutions for practical working problems, thus they recommended that corporations increase sensitivity training for expatriates.

Apart from the negative impact on performance and job satisfaction of expatriate employees of cross-cultural conflicts, national employees' job satisfaction also be affected. In IHCs, expatriate staff receive higher levels of pay than national Chinese employees, which leads to feelings of injustice and dissatisfaction in the workplace (Leung et al., 2001; Leung et al., 2009). In short, cross-cultural conflict may negatively impact the performance and job satisfaction of both expatriate staff and national employees.

3.3.4 High employee turnover rate

In the Chinese hotel industry, the staff turnover rate is much higher than that of general corporations at 5% – 10%, with an average of 8 % (Ma et al., 2014). The leading tourism and hospitality publications EBSCO *Host* and China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI), contain some key articles on employee turnover in the Chinese hotel industry (Chen and Zheng, 2016; Duan et al., 2015; Hom and Xiao, 2011; Hung, 2013; Lam et al., 2003; Lv et al., 2012; Ma et al., 2014; Qiu et al., 2015; Shao et al., 2009; Tian and Zuo, 2013; Wang and Cong, 2007; Yang, 2014).

Over the last ten years, more than 1000 articles have been published on the subject of employee turnover in the Chinese hotel industry in the industry journal CNKI (e.g. Gao,

2012; Li, 2012; Wang, 2011; Wu and Huang, 2014; Yan, 2007; Zhang, 2015). Zhang (2015) points out that high turnover rates reduce service quality and increase HRM costs, such as training and recruitment. Yan (2007) found that the employee turnover rate of IHCs in China was high, although lower than the rate of Chinese domestic hotels. The previous Chapter has considered factors which increase employee turnover, but some researchers have identified factors specific to the Chinese environment. Zhang (2015) explains that, according to traditional Chinese views, employment in the hotel industry is equivalent to serving people (*ci hou ren*), which was regarded as a socially-inferior occupation. In terms of IHCs, Yan (2007) found that most IHCs in China tended to appoint staff with some experience of studying, working, or living abroad to managerial positions, therefore many knowledgeable Chinese local employees found that they had limited opportunities for promotion and chose to leave, planning to go to domestic hotels to take up managerial positions.

Among collected articles relating to staff turnover in CNKI, there were seven published in the Tourism Tribune, which is the leading Chinese journal for the hospitality and tourism industry (presented in Table 3.3). Table 3.3 indicates that the majority of articles in the Tourism Tribune researched staff turnover from psychological perspectives (employee perceived value, employee trust in leader, self-efficacy, psychological capital, and psychological contract). These articles focused on which psychological factors influence employee turnover, but did not establish a conceptual framework to discuss how to mitigate employee turnover through effective HRM policies and practices. Five of seven articles indicated that employee job satisfaction impacted negatively on staff turnover (Duan et al., 2015; Shao et al., 2009; Tian and Zuo, 2013; Wang and Cong, 2007; Yang, 2014). In Chapter Two, the study indicated that low job satisfaction leads to increased employee turnover (Chiang and Jang, 2008; Qiu et al., 2015). Therefore,

enhancement of employee job satisfaction should be prioritised in order to mitigate staff turnover.

Table 3.3: Articles about employee turnover in Tourism Tribune

Author(s)	Methodology	Main conclusion
Chen and Zheng (2016)	Quantitative study	Employee's perceived value has a significant impact on their intention to leave their post
Duan et al. (2015)	Quantitative study	Employees' affective trust and cognitive trust in leaders positively influence their work satisfaction levels
Ma et al., (2014)	Description	Employee turnover issue will be solved from an ethical perspective
Shao et al., (2009)	Quantitative study	General sense of self-efficacy has a direct impact on employee turnover intentions
Tian and Zuo (2013)	Quantitative study	Reasonable use of human, social, and psychological capital can decrease an employee turnover rate
Wang and Cong (2007)	Quantitative study	Psychological contract directly impacts employee turnover intentions
Yang (2014)	Quantitative study	Remuneration, level of seniority, marital status, and gender all influence employee turnover

3.3.5 Guanxi

Guanxi is a characteristic of Chinese culture which influences on every facet of Chinese society and is reflected in individuals' social lives (Park and Luo, 2001). Their study cited key articles regarding guanxi published in International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, International Journal of Hospitality Management, International Journal of Human Resource Management, and Tourism Management (shown in Table 3.4). Table 3.4 indicates that HRM research into guanxi has rapidly increased since the beginning of 21st Century, and research into guanxi in the Chinese hotel industry increased rapidly after 2010. In addition to the articles referred to in Table 3.4, their study collates articles about guanxi in the HRM and hospitality management fields from other academic journals: Bedford (2011); Chen and Tjosvold (2006); Cheung et al. (2009);

Geddie et al. (2002); Han and Altman (2009); Hom and Xiao (2011); Ho et al. (2015); Mejia et al. (2015); Mejia et al. (2016); Park and Luo (2001); Qiu et al. (2015); Teng et al. (2012); Wong et al. (2007); Wang and Murphy (2010); Yang (2002); Zhai et al. (2013).

Table 3.4: Journal articles regarding guanxi in four leading journals

Journal	Until 2000	2000-2009	2010-2017
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	Pang et al. (1998)	0	Hsu et al. (2012); Yang et al. (2014); Yeung et al. (2016)
International Journal of Hospitality Management	0	0	Cheng (2011); Hung et al. (2012); Li et al. (2016); Miao et al. (2011); Yang and Lau (2015);
International Journal of Human Resource Management	0	Bu and Roy (2008); Bozionelos and Wang (2006); Bozionelos and Wang (2007); Chang and Chi (2007); Chow and Fu (2000); Law et al. (2001); Law et al. (2000); Mao (2006); Si et al. (2008); Sue-Chan and Dasborough (2006); Tung and Worm (2001); Wilkinson et al. (2005); Wong et al. (2002); Wong and Slater (2002); Wright et al. (2002); Zhu and Dowling (2002)	Cheng et al. (2010); Cooke (2011); Cooke (2012); Fu and Kamenou (2011); Hu et al. (2016); Liu and Wang (2013); Nolan (2011); Saher and Mayrhofer (2014); Smith et al. (2012); Wang et al. (2012); Wong et al. (2010); Zhang et al. (2015)
Tourism Management	0	0	Gu et al. (2013); Wang and Ap (2013); Zhao and Timothy (2015)
Total articles count	1	16	23

Source: Web of Science

Hsu et al. (2012) describe guanxi as a Chinese term, similar to ‘relationship’, ‘social capital’ or ‘social network’. But Yang (2002) argues that the term guanxi refers to a complex social phenomenon which has no clear definition. This is because, in reality, guanxi takes many forms: “xueyuan guanxi (blood-ties), feixueyuan guanxi (non-blood-ties), fuqi guanxi (between spouses), fuzi guanxi (between father and child), muzi guanxi

(between mother and child), qinshu guanxi (between relatives), pengyou guanxi (between friends), and tongshi guanxi (between colleagues)” (Wang and Murphy, 2010, p. 148). Some researchers (e.g. Bedford, 2011; Wang and Murphy, 2010; Yang and Lau, 2015; Zhai et al., 2013) define guanxi as the integration of “ganqing”, “renqing”, and “xinren” in the workplace, and the author of this study follows this definition. Although Mejia et al. (2016) reported that guanxi and renqing were two societal norms in China, their study nevertheless showed that forming guanxi depended on renqing. Ganqing means ‘affection which is established by social interaction’, and is the most fundamental part of guanxi (Bedford, 2011). In other words, if there is an absence of mutual affection, guanxi will not develop (Bedford, 2011). Renqing is described as the reciprocal exchange of favours (Yang and Lau, 2015). According to Wang and Murphy (2010), when an individual receives a favour from another person, he or she has a responsibility to return this favour. Xinren means trust, based on renqing (Bedford, 2011); to develop guanxi, an individual who does a favour for another person believes that this favour can be repaid to him or her when necessary (Bedford, 2011).

Mejia et al. (2015) used leader-member exchange theory (LMX) to verify the theory that cultivating relationships with subordinates was beneficiary for expatriate managers’ careers. In their most recent study (Mejia et al., 2016), it emerged that a thorough understanding of guanxi was very important for the expatriate staff of IHCs in China. However, their analysis of guanxi concentrated on LMX, which came from Western culture, and involves regulating relationships between supervisors and subordinates at work (Chen and Tjosvold, 2006). In their 2015 study, Yang and Lau consider supervisor-subordinate guanxi, which focused on interaction in both working and non-working hours, to demonstrate that the development of supervisor-subordinate guanxi was essential for managerial employees’ career progress in the Chinese hotel industry. Their study also showed that developing co-worker guanxi had a positive impact on some non-managerial

staff, such as front desk or back office employees. Furthermore, subordinates might feel more confident and motivated in their work when they established good guanxi with their supervisor, because they saw them as more significant than others, and felt that they should live up to their supervisors' trust in them (Cheung et al., 2009). Effectively, employees' job performance and satisfaction might be improved. Similarly, Cheung et al., (2009) demonstrate that job satisfaction mediated the relationship between supervisor-subordinate guanxi and employee leaving intention. However, some supervisors gave higher rewards to employees with whom they had good relationships despite their poor performance, which has a negative influence on employee job satisfaction and performance (Han and Altman, 2009).

Overall, LMX helps staff to continue working efficiently, but supervisor-subordinate guanxi helps staff to feel supported and to obtain increased remuneration (Chen and Tjosvold, 2006). Most importantly, supervisor-subordinate guanxi plays a role in improving employees' job satisfaction, performance, willingness to remain in post (Cheung et al., 2009; Hom and Xiao, 2011; Qiu et al., 2014; Qiu et al., 2015; Yang and Lau, 2015). IHCs operating in China need to recognise the importance of guanxi. However, relevant research into how to encourage increased levels of supervisor-subordinate guanxi in IHCs remains scant.

3.4 A systematic review of employee job performance and satisfaction in the Chinese hotel industry

When considering the significance of employee job performance and satisfaction in the mitigation of HRM issues, and retaining competitive advantage for IHCs in the Chinese hotel industry, it is valid to systematically review employee performance and job satisfaction in the sector, in order to identify research gaps. This study uses EBSCO *Host*

and Web of Science which are among the most widely-used databases of English literature sources, in order to collect relevant articles in English. China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI), the most popular database for the collection of Chinese literature sources, was also used. Key words used are ‘employee performance’, ‘employee satisfaction’, ‘hotel’, and ‘China’ respectively, and the time period was restricted to 2008 to 2017. Finally, 47 academic articles about employee performance and satisfaction in the Chinese hospitality industry were identified and used. Among the 47 articles, 19 were from CNKI, with the remainder collected from EBSCO *Host* and Web of Science.

3.4.1 Research locations

Table 3.5 presents the research locations of the 47 reviewed articles. Locations are divided into East, Central, and West, in accordance with economic regions’ classification by the National Bureau of Statistics of China (2011). Two of the reviewed articles present research on employee job performance and satisfaction in Macau’s hotel industry. Macau is one of two special administrative regions in China, with high levels of autonomy; it was part of Portugal until 1999 (China, 2009). It is not therefore classified as an economic region of China by the National Bureau of Statistics of China (2011). Among the reviewed articles, two investigated employee job performance and satisfaction in Macau’s hotel industry, therefore the two articles’ location was classified as Macau rather than a Chinese economic region. Four reviewed articles (Li et al., 2011; Ling et al., 2017; Zeng and Huang; Zhai and Wang, 2013) conducted surveys in two or more regions. For example, Zeng and Huang (2014) collected data in the Eastern and Western economic regions of China. Therefore, the total number presented in Table 3.5 is higher than the quantity of articles reviewed.

Apart from 12 articles which did not indicate in which region of China the data was collected, research into employee job performance and satisfaction in the Chinese Eastern economic region ranked first. The total number of research studies in Central and Western economic regions was ten, which meant that only one-third of the research had been conducted in the Eastern economic region. Among the English literature sources, only one article presented research conducted in the Central economic region, and none was conducted in the Western economic region. This indicates that English literature about the hotel sector in the Chinese Central and Western regions remains scant. However, in recent years, the hotel industry in Central and Western economic regions has undergone dramatic development (Zhang et al., 2012). It is therefore valid to shift the research focus from the Eastern economic region to the Central and Western economic regions.

Table 3.5: The number of reviewed articles by research location

Rank	Research location	Number
1	Eastern (Beijing, Fujian, Guangdong, Jiangsu, Hainan, Shanghai, Shandong, Zhejiang)	28
2	Central (Hunan)	7
3	Western (Gansu, Guangxi, Sichuan)	3
4	Macau	2
	Not shown	12

3.4.2 Topics relating to enhancing employee job performance and satisfaction

(1) Employee job performance

21 of 47 studies concerned employee job performance in the Chinese hotel industry. Determinants of employee job performance were diverse; these were divided into high-commitment HR practices, leadership, justice, employee emotion, relationships with customers, psychological factors, career development, employee marginalisation, self-

evaluation, task conflict and team relationship conflict, and work ostracism. Details are presented in Table 3.6.

Among the determinants of enhanced employee job performance, leadership ranked highest. ‘Leadership is no more than exercising such an influence upon others that they tend to act in concert towards achieving a goal which they might not have achieved so readily had they been left to their own devices’ (Dixon, 1994, p. 214). Huczynski and Buchanan (2013) observe that leadership consists of three elements: interpersonal process (impact on others), social context (how subordinates are impacted), and goal achievement (the method of appropriate leadership). Ling et al. (2017) collected data from questionnaires in 16 luxury-grade hotels in Guangdong and Hunan Provinces, finding that leadership impacted positively on employee job performance. However, Lyu et al. (2016) indicated that negative leadership (e.g. abuse of supervisory position) reduces employee job performance. Qin et al. (2014) conducted a survey of hotels in South China which demonstrated that ethical leadership influences employee job performance positively. Additionally, leader-member exchange is part of leadership, and it is shown that efficient leadership occurs when supervisors and subordinates establish mutually-positive relationships (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). Li et al. (2012) conducted a survey of the relationship between leader-member exchange and employee job performance in Guangdong Province, with 326 employees and 54 supervisors completing questionnaires. They identified a positive relationship between leader-member exchange and employee job performance. In terms of publication years, the role of leadership to employee job performance remained the most frequently-researched topic in the years 2012, 2014, 2016, and 2017.

High-commitment HR practices include organisational HR policies and procedures which aim to enhance employee self-efficacy, work motivation, work efficiency, and perceived

organisational support (Chen et al., 2017). Chen et al. (2017) demonstrated the direct and positive relationship between high-commitment HR practices and employee job performance directly. King et al. (2013) described the relationship between brand orientation and employee job performance; however, brand orientation was transmitted through HR practices (e.g. training) and aimed to enhance employee commitment. Person-organisational fit also examined employee commitment to the organisation (Lu, 2014). Therefore, determinants of King et al., (2013) and Lu (2014) were regarded as high-commitment HR practices for the purposes of the study. Regarding employee emotion, employees' happiness (Huang *et al.*, 2017), burnout (Cai and He, 2010), and emotional labour (Tian, 2014) were considered as its components. Meanwhile, perceived organisational justice included distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Hon and Lu, 2013).

Table 3.6: Determinants of employee job performance

Rank	Determinant	Author(s)
1	Leadership	Li et al. (2012); Lyu et al. (2016); Ling et al. (2017); Qin et al. (2014)
2	Employee emotion	Cai and He (2010); Huang et al. (2017); Tian (2014);
2	High-commitment HR practices	Chen et al. (2017); King et al. (2013); Lu (2014);
2	Perceived organisational Justice	Hon and Lu (2013); Li and Lu (2013); Wu et al. (2013)
5	Relationships with customers	Huang and Xie (2017); Lin and Wang (2017)
6	Psychological factor	Xu et al. (2015)
6	Career development	Li (2015)
6	Employee marginalisation	Li (2016)
6	Self-evaluation	Song and Chathoth (2013)
6	Task conflict and team relationship conflict	Hon and Chan (2013);
6	Work ostracism	Zhu et al. (2017)

(2) Employee job satisfaction

Consequences, moderating or mediating effect, extent of job satisfaction

31 of 47 studies concerned employee job satisfaction in the Chinese hotel industry. Topics were divided into four aspects: consequences, moderating or mediating effect, extent of job satisfaction, and determinants. Fisher et al. (2010) indicated that job satisfaction led to higher business performance. Five articles (Humborstad and Perry, 2011; Kuang, 2013; Li and Wang, 2016; Xu, 2017; Zhai and Wang, 2013) researched staff turnover as a negative consequence of job dissatisfaction in the Chinese hotel industry. Kuang (2013) also identified that front-line departments, such as food and beverage, had higher employee turnover rates than others, because employees in front-line departments reported lower levels of job satisfaction. Similarly, Ding (2014) and Tian and Pu (2008) researched the extent of employee job satisfaction in Chinese hotels. Ding (2014) demonstrated that employees in food and beverage and customer service departments reported lower job satisfaction than other front-line departments (front office and sales and marketing departments). In contrast, Tian and Pu (2008) showed that employees' job satisfaction in the Chinese hotel industry was generally low, and their satisfaction levels varied according to age and gender. Three articles (Cheung et al., 2014; Li and Lu, 2013; Qin et al., 2014) identified job satisfaction as a moderator or mediator.

Determinants

The remainder of the articles used researched determinants of employee job satisfaction. Details are presented in Table 3.7. This study categorises determinants of employee job satisfaction as: leadership, employee emotion, career development, HRM systems, psychological factors, perceived organisational justice, conflict between work and family,

job characteristics model (JCM), job security, organisational socialisation tactics, self-determination, training, task conflict and team relationship conflict. It was noted that Fisher and McPhail (2011) analysed three determinants of employee job satisfaction which were career development, job security, training, presented separately in Table 3.7.

Among these determinants, leadership ranked highest, which was consistent with employee performance. According to Table 3.7, four articles in total concerned the relationship between leadership and employee job satisfaction. Of four articles, two (Duan et al., 2015; Tang et al., 2013) were included in the CNKI and published in the *Tourism Tribune*, leading journals of the Chinese tourism and hospitality sector. Duan et al. (2015) collected data through questionnaires in the hotels of Zhangjiajie City, and they showed that leadership behaviours (honesty, role-qualification, fairness, instruction, consideration, and sharing of authority) have a positive impact on employee trust in leaders, which in turn strongly and positively influences levels of job satisfaction. Tang et al. (2013) carried out a survey of five-star hotels in Hunan Province which indicated that leaders' levels of social responsibility positively impacted on employee job satisfaction. Hon and Lu (2010) similarly researched employee trust in leaders, concentrating on expatriate leaders, concluding that employees' cognitive and affective trust in expatriate leaders enhanced employees' job satisfaction. The other English literature source was Wong and Li (2015), who employed both interview and questionnaire techniques to demonstrate that unethical treatment of employees by their managers reduces their job satisfaction. The majority of reviewed articles about employee job satisfaction researching determinants, as opposed to other topics, imply that the question of how to enhance employee job satisfaction remains a key issue for researchers, at a time when high employee turnover rates and low levels of job satisfaction persist.

Table 3.7: Determinants of employee job satisfaction

Rank	Determinant	Author(s)
1	Leadership	Duan et al. (2015); Hon and Lu (2010); Tang and Tu (2013); Wong and Li (2015);
2	Employee emotion	Chen et al. (2012); Tian (2014); Zeng and Huang (2014);
3	Career development	Fisher and McPhail (2011); Kong et al. (2015);
3	High-commitment HR practices	Li et al. (2011); To et al. (2015);
3	Psychological factors	Wan and Wei (2008); Xu et al. (2015);
3	Perceived organisational justice	Leung et al. (2009); Wu and Wang (2008)
7	Conflict between work and family	Qu and Zhao (2012)
7	Job Characteristics Model (JCM)	Zhao et al. (2016)
7	Job security	Fisher and Mcphail (2011)
7	Organisational socialisation tactics	Song et al. (2015)
7	Self-determination	Fock et al. (2011)
7	Training	Fisher and Mcphail (2011)
7	Task conflict and team relationship conflict	Hon and Chan (2013)

(3) Employee job performance and satisfaction

In the reviewed articles, only four (Hon and Chan, 2013b; Li and Lu, 2013; Tian, 2014; Xu et al., 2015) researched both employee job performance and satisfaction. However, three of them (Li and Lu, 2013; Tian, 2014; Xu et al., 2015) were from the CNKI, which means that there was a lack of English literature on this topic. Among the four articles, one regarded employee job satisfaction as a moderator between job performance and perceived organisational justice. The other three confirmed influential factors that enhanced employee job performance and satisfaction. An article by Hon and Chan (2013b) was the only reviewed English literature source on both employee job performance and satisfaction; they pointed out that task conflict had a positive relationship with both job performance and satisfaction, but team relationship conflict impacted negatively on job performance and satisfaction. Tian (2014) argued that emotional labour influences both

job performance and satisfaction, while Xu et al. (2015) described the positive impact of psychological capital on it.

3.4.3 Research methods

Most of the reviewed articles used questionnaires as their research method. Ding (2014), Qin et al. (2014), and Wong and Li (2015) employed both questionnaires and interviews as their research methods. Of these, Qin et al. (2014) used interviews to inform questionnaire design. Only Hon and Lu (2013) considered interview as a single research method. In summary, the use of interview alone, or both interview and questionnaire as research method(s), remained rare. According to Saunders et al. (2016), interview can obtain valid and reliable data which is consistent with research aims and objectives; this contributes to new ideas, which are not formed by research aims and objectives, by obtaining interviewees' real experiences. For the future, it is valid to increase the usage of interview or a combination of interview and questionnaire in the field of hospitality and tourism and research.

3.4.4 Research gaps

Although most reviewed articles researched employee job performance and satisfaction at luxury-standard hotels in China, few concentrated on IHCs in China. Among the reviewed articles, only Fisher et al. (2010), Fisher and McPhail (2011), Hon and Lu (2010), Hon and Lu (2013), and Leung et al. (2009) explicitly highlighted the fact that they conducted their research at IHCs in China. There was also no Chinese literature source within reviewed articles on surveys conducted in IHCs. IHCs have played a significant role in the development of the Chinese hotel industry, also providing guidance for domestic Chinese hotels (Fu, 2017; Guillet et al., 2011). Therefore, it is appropriate

to increase the body of research into the methods by which IHCs in China enhance their employee job performance and satisfaction. In Chapter Two, this study indicates that one possible relationship between employee job performance and satisfaction is that employee job performance/satisfaction mediates the relationship between employee job satisfaction/performance and the third construct (Judge et al., 2001).

Other research gaps found by the study have been mentioned above, and there is the summary about them. Most reviewed articles collected data in the Eastern economic region of China, but few were conducted in the Central and Western economic regions. There is also no English literature source about data collection in the Central and Western economic regions of China in the reviewed articles. This is not consistent with the rapid development of the hotel industry in the Central and Western regions and the increasing levels of investment by IHCs in operations in the Central and Western economic regions. Therefore, transferring the research focus from the Eastern economic region to the Central and Western economic regions should be considered. Also, the majority of the articles researched employee performance or job satisfaction rather than both issues. Finally, interview, or a combination of interview and completing questionnaires as a research method remained rare.

3.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, this Chapter addresses the second and third objectives of Aim One; the second objective was achieved in this Chapter. To meet this objective, the study divided the development of the Chinese hotel industry into six stages in which the growth of IHCs was charted, informed by relevant literature. This six-stage classification indicated that employee localisation at IHCs in China was a key topic, and that IHCs' operating

locations expanded from the Chinese Eastern economic region to the Chinese Central and Western economic regions.

This Chapter provides a review of the literature relevant to employee job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China, as the first stage towards meeting the third objective of Aim One. According to review of the relevant literature, several key findings emerged. The study firstly indicates the significance of enhancing employee job performance and satisfaction to mitigate identified challenging HRM issues (employee localisation, cross-cultural conflict, high employee turnover rate, and *guanxi*), and to retain competitive advantage for IHCs in the Chinese hotel sector. Secondly, the study finds that previous research regarding the relationships between the three key constructs (employee job performance, satisfaction, and supervisor-subordinate *guanxi*) and how to enhance positive supervisor-subordinate *guanxi* at IHCs in China remains scant. Thirdly, a systematic review of employee job performance and satisfaction in the Chinese hotel industry indicates that there have been few previous studies focusing on IHCs in China, the Central and Western economic regions of China, mixed methods, and the mediating effects of employee performance/satisfaction. In short, Chapters Two and Three have achieved the first stages of the first and third objectives of Aim One, respectively. Chapter Four, which follows, aims to meet these two objectives.

Chapter 4 Employee motivation in the hotel industry and the role of autonomy in it

4.1 Introduction

Previous Chapters have confirmed the value of researching both employee job performance and satisfaction at international hotel chains (IHCs) in China. According to Ambrose and Kulik (1999) and Armstrong and Taylor (2017), motivation is an effective method for the improvement of employees' attitudes (such as satisfaction levels) and behaviours (such as performance). This Chapter provides a review of employee motivation and role of autonomy in motivation at international hotel chains (IHCs) in general and in China specifically, as the final stage of achievement of the first and third objectives of Aim One.

This Chapter consists of three Sections. Section One provides the definition of employee motivation for the purposes of this study. Section Two presents the primary motivation theories used in the workplace, and Section Three systematically reviews the relevant literature and fills the research gap.

4.2 Employee motivation in context

4.2.1 The definition of employee motivation

The term 'motivation' derives from the Latin word *movere* (movement); motivation is a prompt to do something (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). Latham and Pinder (2005) explain that motivation is a psychological process resulting from an individual's response to a variety of situations. In the opinion of Locke and Latham (2004, p.388), "the concept

of motivation refers to internal factors that impel action and to external factors that can act as inducements to action. The three aspects of action that motivation can affect are direction (choice), intensity (effort), and duration (persistence)". Thus, motivation is divided into three aspects: *direction*, which concerns what people endeavour to do; *effort*, which tests the extent of individuals' endeavour, and *persistence*, which considers how long people continue their endeavour (Arnold et al., 2016). This is a general definition of motivation, but there are various forms of motivation within research fields, specifically donation motivation, employee work motivation, and tourism motivation. Since this study researches employee job satisfaction and performance, employee work motivation is analysed.

Defining employee work motivation includes the general definition of motivation presented above. Some authors who research employee motivation draw on Pinder's definition (e.g. Ambrose and Kulik, 1999; Latham and Pinder, 2005; Thapar, 2016). Pinder (2008, p.11) defines employee work motivation as "a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration". Pinder's definition introduces the three key aspects of motivation: direction, intensity (effort), and duration (persistence).

4.2.2 The significance of employee motivation to job performance and satisfaction

As previously described, employee localisation, high employee turnover rates, cross-cultural conflicts, and supervisor-subordinate guanxi are challenging human resource management (HRM) issues for IHCs in China; these issues have a negative impact on employee job performance and satisfaction (Aziz et al., 2007; Ivanova et al., 2016; Yang and Lau, 2015). The hotel industry is among the most labour-intensive industries,

meaning that employees' behaviours (e.g. job performance) and attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction) are crucial for the development of each IHCs (Law and Tam, 2008). In this regard, it is essential to utilise appropriate international human resource management strategies (IHRMS) to improve employee job satisfaction and performance in IHCs.

In Chapter Two, it is explained that few previous studies have employed psychological methods to mitigate challenging HRM issues in the hotel industry. In the fields of occupational psychology and HRM, supporting motivation is a method of improving both the work attitude (such as satisfaction) and behaviour (such as performance) of staff (Ambrose and Kulik, 1999; Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). Zheng and Lamond (2009) reviewed 26 leading international journals published in China, finding that current studies of employee motivation are a focus for human resource managers. Clearly, effectively-motivated staff are willing to exert high levels of effort and commitment to support their organisations in their required direction, therefore it is beneficial for the improvement of employee job performance (Kreye, 2016). Encouragement of employee motivation has become one of the most important HRM strategies within organisations in order to boost job performance (Taghipour and Dejban, 2013). Employee motivation also contributes to job satisfaction (Ambrose and Kulik, 1999; Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). Many researchers (e.g. Aziz et al., 2007; Breiter et al., 2002; Chang and Teng, 2017; Dipietro et al., 2014; Groch, 2015; Joung et al., 2015; Karatepe and Uludag, 2007; Lam et al., 2001) refer to motivation levels to support recommendations on improvement of employees' job satisfaction and performance in the hotel industry.

Inadequate motivation systems may lead to poor performance and dissatisfaction in the workplace (Adeola and Adebisi, 2016), so methods of effectively motivating staff are worthy of organisations' further consideration. Motivation is an invisible and theoretical concept which cannot be directly measured; instead, it is necessary to employ motivation

methods and theories to understand how staff motivation impacts on performance and job satisfaction (Ambrose and Kulik, 1999; Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). The following Section introduces types of motivation and the primary theories of this which are used in the workplace.

4.3 Motivation types and primary motivation theories

4.3.1 Motivation types

(1) Intrinsic motivation

Motivation can be divided into two types: intrinsic and extrinsic (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). Intrinsic motivation is defined as “the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable consequence” (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p. 56). The effects of intrinsic motivation are evident when employees feel that their work is interesting, challenging, and significant (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). In other words, intrinsic motivation depends on the work itself, which is consistent with personally-inherent values (Deci and Ryan, 2000). In contrast to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation “is a construct that pertains whenever an activity is done in order to attain some separable outcome” (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p.60). According to Armstrong and Taylor (2017), the effects of extrinsic motivation take place through rewards (e.g. promotion, compliments, or increased pay) or penalties (e.g. demotion, criticism, and decreased pay).

(2) Extrinsic motivation

Extrinsic motivation has an instant and powerful effect, but this is not sustained, while intrinsic motivation inherent to individuals has long-term effects (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). This is because staff have higher levels of autonomy and self-determination, and their activities are consistent with personal values and regulations when they are intrinsically-motivated (Ryan and Deci, 2000). The research of Herzberg (1966) indicated that the majority of employees regarded intrinsic motivation as more important in the workplace than extrinsic motivation. Becker et al. (2012), Chang and Jang (2008), Gatling et al. (2016), Hon (2012), Hon (2011), and Lee et al. (2015) accord that intrinsic motivation is more accurately reflected by employees' behaviours and attitudes in the hotel industry.

However, the fact that extrinsic motivation is highly prevalent through tangible rewards in the workplace clearly undermines intrinsic motivation (Gagné and Deci, 2005). Breiter et al. (2002) and Dipietro et al. (2014) employ Kovach's ten motivational factors, which include both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators (good wages, job security, good working conditions, opportunities for advancement and development, interesting work, appreciation for accomplishments, personal loyalty to employees, tactful discipline, feeling of being in on things, and sympathetic help with problems). They report that, in the hotel industry, extrinsic motivation plays a more significant role. Dermody et al. (2004) conducted an exploratory qualitative study which demonstrated that compensation and monetary reward are the most important motivators in the hotel industry. Amissah et al. (2016), Kuang (2013), Qiu et al. (2015), Wu and Wang (2008), and Yang (2014) additionally identified that pay, as an extrinsic need for employees, is the primary motivator of employee behaviours and attitudes in the hotel sector, because low pay is a serious problem in this industry.

4.3.2 Self-determination theory

Self-determination theory indicates that when employees consider themselves self-determined, they use a sense of autonomy to continue with specific positive behaviours (Ryan & Deci, 2000). This theory also proposes that individuals feel the psychological need to achieve competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Arnold et al., 2016). The desire for competence is clear in individuals who wish to be efficient in their work, and achieve desirable outcomes (Darner, 2009). The need for autonomy, along with self-determination, refers to the origin of behaviours which an individual is able to sustain (Darner, 2009). The fact that individuals have a sense of belonging to a specific group is explained by the need for relatedness (Darner, 2009). Among the three identified needs of individuals in this respect, self-determination emphasises that autonomy plays a highly-significant role in the motivation process (Arnold et al., 2016). This theory holds that demotivation occurs when there is an absence of intrinsic or extrinsic reward, and intrinsic and extrinsic are two basic forms of motivation (Deci and Ryan, 2000). This theory has been successfully used to assess employees' behaviours and attitudes in the hotel industry by understanding intrinsic, extrinsic, autonomous, and controlled motivation (Chiang and Birtch, 2008; Chiang and Birth, 2010; Graves et al., 2013; Hon, 2012; Kim et al., 2016).

(1) Autonomous motivation

As previously discussed, self-determination theory emphasises the role of autonomy in the motivation process (Arnold et al., 2016). The nature of autonomous motivation is self-expression or self-consistent, highlighting the fact that individuals need to internalise externally-acquired regulations and values (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Because individuals who are intrinsically motivated to engage in work tasks or activities have higher levels of

psychological autonomy and self-determination to complete them, intrinsic motivation represents a type of autonomous motivation (Gagné & Deci, 2005). One of the principal contributions of self-determination theory is to divide extrinsic motivation into different types (external regulation, regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation), according to the relevant degree of autonomy (Arnold et al., 2016). Of the four types of extrinsic motivation, the autonomous degree of identified regulation and integrated regulation are the strongest, therefore some researchers (e.g. Gagné et al., 2015; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Welters et al., 2014) indicate that identified and integrated regulation can also be classified as forms of autonomous motivation. Specifically, 'identified regulation' refers to an attitude of consideration of external needs as having personal significance, while 'integrated regulation' refers to an attitude of consideration of external needs as having personal significance and self-expression (Arnold et al., 2016).

(2) Controlled motivation

External regulation and introjected regulation are included in controlled motivation, which highlights the fact that employees tend to work on an activity in the manner that they believe is required for its completion (Gagné et al., 2015; Graves et al., 2013). External regulation refers to an individual behaviour which is controlled by external needs (Gagné et al., 2015). In other words, reward is the principal form of external regulation (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Expectancy theory shows that employees deploy a specific behaviour when they expect that this behaviour will result in desirable rewards (Chiang et al., 2008). The hotel industry is characterised as having low pay levels, which negatively influence employees' job attitudes and behaviours (Chiang and Jang, 2008), therefore rewarding employees is an effective way in which to positively influence staff behaviours and attitudes. In empirical research into the hotel industry, Graves et al. (2013) and Kim et al. (2016) demonstrated that external motivation (external regulation) is

positively related to employees' behaviours in the workplace. In contrast, "Introjected regulation refers to the regulation of behaviour out of internally pressuring forces, such as ego-involvement, shame, and guilt" (Gagné et al., 2015, p. 179). This is exemplified by individuals feeling pride in themselves when they meet external needs (Arnold et al., 2016).

(3) Relevant research in relation to autonomous and controlled motivation

According to self-determination theory, autonomous motivation is more likely to contribute to the achievement of desirable standards of performance in the workplace than controlled motivation, because the nature of autonomous motivation is self-expression or self-consistency (Gagné and Deci, 2005). In contrast, feeling obliged to carry out an activity is characteristic of controlled motivation, which may prevent employees from achieving desirable performance (Gagné and Deci, 2005). Previous studies (Graves et al., 2013; Hon, 2012; Kim et al., 2016) have demonstrated that autonomous motivation positively impacts on employees' behaviours in the workplace. Employees can strive to improve their fulfilment of an activity, if it fits with their value and goals (Kim et al., 2016).

As previously discussed, many researchers (Amissah et al., 2016; Breiter et al., 2002; Dermody et al., 2004; Dipietro et al., 2014; Kuang, 2013; Qiu et al., 2015; Wu and Wang, 2008; Yang, 2014) have indicated that extrinsic motivation plays a significant role in employee performance in the hotel industry. However, this Section has explored the idea that extrinsic motivation effects change due to the differences in levels of autonomy in determination theory (Ryan and Deci, 2000). One employee will complete a task to avoid criticism by their line manager; another employee will do so because he/she thinks that it is useful for their career goal. For the two employees, motivation may be extrinsic, but

their individual degree of autonomy may be different. The second employee's level of autonomy may be higher. Further, due to changes in extrinsic motivation, the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are not clear in practice, even though it can be conceptually recognised (Arnold et al., 2016). Therefore, it may be unnecessary to clearly differentiate between intrinsic and extrinsic motivators; however, consideration of how to internalise individual external regulations and values is important.

4.3.3 Two-factor theory

Two-factor theory, developed by Herzberg (1966), focuses on investigation of levels of employee job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. According to Herzberg (1966), two types of factors influence employee job satisfaction and dissatisfaction: motivating factors (motivator) and hygiene factors. Motivators in the workplace relate to intrinsic motivation, including interest of the work, responsibility, recognition, achievement, advancement (Sledge et al., 2008). In contrast, hygiene factors in the workplace related to external needs, including pay, working environment, status, security, and relationships with supervisors and co-workers (Sledge et al., 2008). According to Herzberg's two-factor theory, motivators maintain employees' satisfaction, while hygiene factors reduce dissatisfaction (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). Specifically, Herzberg's two-factor theory indicates that satisfaction and dissatisfaction come from two separate continua, which means that the absence of satisfaction does not lead to dissatisfaction (Sledge et al., 2008). Preventing from dissatisfaction does not mean productivity decrease, but employees are not willing to put in more effort; in contrast, keeping satisfied in the workplace enhances employees' effort and productivity (Ann and Blum, 2020).

Even though some researchers (e.g. Opsahl and Dunnette, 1966; Rousseau, 2006) argue that two-factor theory cannot measure the extent to which employee job satisfaction

impacts on job performance and productivity, this theory does highlight the significance of intrinsic motivation, and contributes to the development of reward systems featuring financial and non-financial factors (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017).

Lundberg et al. (2009), Mohsin et al. (2013), and Sledge et al. (2008) demonstrated that pay is a hygiene factor rather than a motivator in the hotel industry. However, Zopiatis et al., (2014) argue that external needs contribute to employee job satisfaction. In the field of hospitality research there are many researchers who regard remuneration as a extrinsic need for employees, as it is the primary method of improvement of employee job satisfaction in the hotel sector, because low pay is a significant issue in this sector (Amissah et al., 2016; Breiter et al., 2002; Dermody et al., 2004; Dipietro et al., 2014; Kuang, 2013; Qiu et al., 2015; Wu and Wang, 2008; Yang, 2014).

4.3.4 Need theories

Need theories are based on human psychological needs, implying that psychology tends to provoke anxiety more quickly than satisfaction, and our learned behaviour styles which address human needs prevail (Arnold et al., 2016). Maslow's hierarchy of human needs, one of most prevalent need theories, continues to be regarded as valid (Breiter et al., 2002). This theory divides human needs into five classes, sequencing them from the lowest to the highest level of need, specifically lowest to highest being: physiological, safety, belonging, esteem, and self-actualisation (Arnold et al., 2016). Generally, when one level of need is satisfied, employees are more effectively motivated by higher-level need (Maslow, 1943). Meng et al. (2010) indicate that lower-level needs are of greater importance to employees at the lowest hierarchical levels; e.g., hotel waiters pay greater attention to providing themselves with food and shelter (physiological needs) due to low pay levels. In contrast, staff higher in the organisation such as managers, are able to

pursue self-actualisation goals because their lower-level needs have been satisfied (Meng et al., 2010).

Because the meeting of needs is essential to human life, some researchers (e.g. Ambrose and Kulik, 1999; Locke, 1991; Locke and Latham, 2004; Latham and Pinder, 2005) consider fulfilment of needs as the first stage in their motivational frameworks. However, researchers such as Rauschenberger et al. (1980) and Wahba and Bridwell (1976) argue that need theories are not successfully applied in workplaces; one of key reasons for this is that need theories overlook human capacity and do not take into account individuals' perceptions of their needs. Arnold et al. (2016) list further disadvantages of need theories adopted into the workplace, which show no strong relationship between needs and behaviour, and are not dependable predictors of employees' specific needs. Armstrong and Taylor (2017) emphasise that employees have differing needs, therefore assuming that employees at the same level of have uniform needs is incorrect.

4.3.5 Expectancy theory

Expectancy theory, originally devised by Vroom (1964), focuses on the process of motivation, while need theories place emphasis on job content (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). According to Arnold et al. (2016), expectancy theory indicates that motivation is determined by the multiplication of expectancy (the level of capability which employees feel that they have to complete their work tasks), instrumentality (the extent to which employees think their good performance will result in rewards), and valence (the extent to which employees consider rewards valuable). This means that any one of three factors being zero will render overall motivation zero (Van Eerde and Thierry, 1996). Simply, employees are motivated when they expect that their performance will attract desirable rewards (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017).

Expectancy theory, in contrast, is based on workers' perception, meaning that undesirable outcomes expected by employees will negatively motivate them (Honore, 2009). According to Arnold et al., (2016), expectancy theory is more favourable method for measurement of attitude (e.g. intention to undertake) towards a behaviour (e.g. performance).

4.3.6 Goal-setting theory

Goal-setting theory was originally proposed by Ed Locke and colleagues in the 1960s, and later developed by Latham and Locke in 1979 (Arnold et al., 2016; Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). This theory shows that challenging but specific and achievable goals lead to higher performance than other types such as vague goals, because setting up a challenging goal requires an employee to make greater effort and spend more time on goal completion, which conforms to the definition of motivation (Arnold et al., 2016). According to the process of the goal-setting cycle, specific and challenging goals lead to desirable performance; this in turn contributes to improved employee job satisfaction. This is consistent with the study's purpose of investigating whether good employee job performance leads to job satisfaction through employee motivation. Additionally, goal commitment, goal importance, self-efficacy, feedback, and task complexity are moderators between goals and performance (Locke and Latham, 2002). Table 4.1 presents explanations for each moderator.

Table 4.1: Moderators between goals and performance

Moderators	Explanations
Goal commitment	Willingness to meet the goal
Goal importance	The goal is significant for the individual
Self-efficacy	Individuals believe that they are capable of meeting their goals
Feedback	Individuals are informed of their progress towards their goals
Task complexity	Tasks are complicated, and a high level of skills and knowledge is required

Locke and Latham (2002) summarise 35-year empirical research to demonstrate the validity of the theory that goal-setting influences motivation. In the light of the principle of diminishing marginal utility (Mankiw, 2015), it is clear that employees' motivation levels diminish exponentially with their length of service, suggesting that the setting of challenging goals for employees is a productive strategy (Chen and Ren, 2011). These researchers contend that the setting of challenging performance goals can stimulate employees to work with increased positivity and creativity, resulting in their good performance through sustained high effort. However, a challenging performance goal may result in cheating or unethical behaviour by individuals who are determined to meet the goal (Ordóñez, 2009; Van Yperen et al., 2011). For example, to achieve revenue goals, some staff at the company Bausch and Lomb fabricated financial statements in 1993; employees at Sears' Automotive Unit charged higher fees than necessary to customers in order to meet their performance targets (Ordóñez, 2009).

In contrast to performance goals, which encourage employees to concentrate on task completion, learning goals reward staff who acquire greater knowledge and skills (Seijts and Latham, 2005). When employees' job tasks are complicated, they are required to improve knowledge and skills before performance goals are set and met (Arnold et al., 2016). After employees' knowledge and skills are enhanced, they have greater willingness to work towards challenging goals. These challenges effectively motivate staff to deliver good performance (Arnold et al., 2016; Seijts and Latham, 2012). Locke

and Latham (2002) reported that learning goals promote individuals' levels of interest in their work. Interest in work is a key indicator of employee job satisfaction and intrinsic motivation (Zopiatis et al., 2014). Ryan and Deci (2000) also indicate that learning goal orientation contributes to the development of higher competence, which itself is a driver of self-determination.

Chapters Two and Three have shown that implementation of training is a prevalent HRM strategy to mitigate challenging HRM issues in IHCs. Training is also a part of learning (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). According to Reynolds et al. (2002), individual motivation to learn is a determinant of the effectiveness of training. As learning goal orientation is an equally-valid method for motivation of individuals, this approach contributes to the effectiveness of training.

4.3.7 Justice theories

Original justice theory is an equity theory originally proposed by Adam (1965); it has featured in justice theories since the late 1980s (Arnold et al., 2016). Equity theory explains that employees are motivated to work harder when they feel their rewards are fair, compared with others who do the similar work (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). There are three forms of justice in the workplace: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice; according to equity theory, distributive justice is linked to employees' beliefs as to whether they have received fair reward for their work; procedural justice refers to employees' feelings of whether think the system of reward allocation for their work is fair, while interactional justice involves employees' impression of whether they are respected by others in their workplace (Cropanzano et al., 2007).

Justice theories explain the inter-relationship of employee motivation and job satisfaction, which in turn contribute to employee job performance (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). However, these theories are concerned with employees' emotions and impressions, which are cannot easily be measured (Arnold et al., 2016). Further, employees who feel over-rewarded are less motivated to work harder (Arnold et al., 2016).

4.3.8 Job design

'Job design' specifies the requirements of jobs to meet employees' (job holders') needs, which in turn motivates them and enhances their job performance and satisfaction levels (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). The 1976 'job characteristics model', (JCM), proposed by Hackman and Oldham, is the most influential current model of job design (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). In JCM, skill range, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback form the five core characteristics (their meanings are shown in Table 4.2); these generate critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness of work tasks, experienced responsibility for work outcomes, and knowledge of the results of work activities) which in turn lead to intrinsic motivation, high levels of job performance and satisfaction (Hackman and Oldham, 1976). In short, JCM gives guidance on methods for the intrinsic motivation of employees by the use of five core strategies, but it does not illustrate the causal relationship between motivation and job performance/satisfaction (Arnold et al., 2016).

Table 4.2: Job characteristics of JCM

Job characteristic	Meaning
Skill variety	The extent to which the job requires a variety of skills to be completed.
Task identity	The extent to which the job shows a complete and identifiable outcome.
Task significance	The extent to which the job has an important influence on other people, organisations, and/or the outside environment.
Autonomy	The extent to which the job allows its holder to freely, independently, and discretionarily arrange and carry out their individual work.
Feedback	The extent to which the job holder obtains fair assessment on their performance.

Source: Adapted from Hackman and Oldham (1976)

In recent decades, many researchers (e.g. Barrick et al., 2013; Humphrey et al., 2007; Morgeson and Humphrey, 2006; Parker et al., 2001; Parker, 2014) have recommended increased attention to core job characteristics or establishment of the motivation model based on JCM, which in turn improves the role of JCM in employee motivation. Humphrey et al. (2007) advocated an increase in knowledge requirements, social factors, and work context, while Parker et al. (2001) added determinant features of job design (e.g. environmental uncertainty, organisational culture, rewards system, personality, and trust in others) which form job characteristics. The motivation model developed by Barrick et al. (2013), based on JCM, integrates personality theory, showing that job satisfaction and improved performance can be the outcomes of employee motivation. In contrast, as noted above, JCM does not demonstrate causality between motivation and job satisfaction and performance.

In addition to JCM, Arnold et al. (2016) list the primary purposes of job design: job rotation, job enlargement, job enrichment, use of technology, response to customer needs, employee's quality of life and health, and optimal use of an employee's skills and knowledge. Overall, the author assumes that researchers use the job design approach to

consider employee motivation, if they refer to the determinants, job characteristics, or concerns of job design noted above.

Job satisfaction and performance can be enhanced by job design as a motivational approach (Parker, 2014). As discussed above, JCM, the most influential model of job design, supports the entire process of motivation, in which job characteristics impact on workers' critical psychological states which lead to outcomes (Arnold et al., 2016). The author will continue to refer this model. Humphrey et al. (2007) indicate that experienced meaningfulness (psychological state) may be the best mediator between job characteristics (e.g. task identity, feedback, autonomy, and skill range) and outcomes by meta-analysis (e.g. job satisfaction and working effectiveness). The theory of purposeful work behaviour proposed by Barrick et al. (2013), showed that experienced meaningfulness of work offers workers job satisfaction and leads to improved performance. In this way, the author will assume that experienced meaningfulness of work is the mediator between job characteristics and outcomes. However, meaningfulness of work is an individualised perception, and the job characteristics of JCM are linked to intrinsic motivation, meaning that it is optimal to apply JCM in order to maximise employees' levels of job satisfaction (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017).

Expatriate and national employees come from different environments, therefore individualised job design will be most meaningful. Skill variety, one of the job characteristics featured in JCM, requires a range of skills to be mastered by employees for task completion (Hackman and Oldham, 1976). Expatriate employees generally take managerial positions in international hotel chains' branches, which may involve them in work on complex tasks, in roles which are important for the development of IHCs (Ozdemir and Cizel, 2007). To deal with complex tasks, mastery of a wider range and higher level of skills and knowledge are requisite (Arnold et al., 2016). Additionally,

expatriate employees require a high level of versatility to their new environment and the local language. Effectively, expatriate employees are likely to require wide skillsets and to take senior roles. The majority of national employees work to shift patterns and long hours, therefore autonomy may be important for them. Both task identity and feedback on performance are important for both expatriate and local employees.

4.3.9 Big Five dimensions of personality

Barrick and Mount defined the ‘Big Five’ dimensions of personality and performance. The five features are: extroversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience; the combination of these is the most commonly-used measure of personality for the prediction of employee job performance (Barrick et al., 2001). The meaning of each element is shown in Table 4.3. This implies that, in order to enhance employees’ job performance and satisfaction, organisations need to consider individual differences when adjusting job characteristics.

Barrick et al. (2013) advance the theory of purposeful work behaviour, in which personality theory (Big Five) and job design (JCM) are integrated to analyse how work outcomes (satisfaction and performance) are influenced by the interaction of personality attributes and job characteristics. The theory of purposeful work behaviour contends that employees will respond individually to assessment of their work characteristics, recommending that highly- conscientious employees tend to require feedback and clear task success criteria in order to complete tasks; employees who are highly-extroverted and/or open to gaining experience are willing to undertake a wider variety of tasks (Barrick et al., 2013). Further, the theory of five dimensions of personality has an impact on employee job performance and satisfaction after autonomy over work is experienced (Barrick et al., 2013).

As IHCs are service-oriented organisations, employees' conscientiousness, emotional stability, extroversion, and friendliness all have positive impacts on customers' satisfaction levels (Cai and He, 2010; Tian, 2014). Horng et al. (2016) indicates that openness to experience contributes positively to employee creativity in the hotel industry. For expatriate staff, those with positive mental attitudes adapt better to their new environments (Feng & Pearson, 1999). Overall, IHCs' employees' personalities play an important role in their performance and satisfaction levels. Table 4.4 presents a summary of primary theories of motivation for employees:

Table 4.3: Elements of Big Five

Element	Meaning
Extroversion	Warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity (energy), excitement-seeking, and the experience of positive emotion.
Emotional instability	Anxiety, angry, hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness and vulnerability.
Conscientiousness	Competence (i.e. feeling of capability), preference for order, dutifulness, striving for achievement, self-discipline, deliberation (e.g. giving thorough and careful thought to tasks).
Agreeableness	Trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, consideration for others.
Openness to experience	Fantasy, aesthetics, feelings, actions, ideas, values.

Source: Arnold et al. (2016, p. 94)

Table 4.4: Summary of primary motivation theories for employees

Motivation theories			Key authors	Strengths	Weaknesses
Self-determination theory	Intrinsic motivation (motivation type)	Intrinsic regulation (AM)	Gagne et al. (2014)	Long-term effect; dependable.	More likely to be undermined by extrinsic motivation.
	Extrinsic motivation (motivation type)	Integrated regulation (AM)	Gagne and Deci (2005); Ryan and Deci (2000)	Instant and strong effect; prevailing in the workplace.	Short-term effect.
		Identified regulation (AM)			
		Introjected regulation (CM)			
		External regulation (CM)			
Two-factor theory			Herzberg (1966)	Highlight the significance of intrinsic motivation; contribute to developing reward systems with financial and non-financial factors.	Cannot measure how employee job satisfaction impacts on job performance and productivity.
Need theories			Alderfer (1972); Wahba and Bridwell (1976); Maslow (1943, 1954); Rauschenberger et al. (1980)	Needs are basic of human life, so some researchers consider needs as the first step of motivation framework.	Overlook individuals' capacity; do not show strong relationships between needs and behaviour; employee needs vary.
Expectancy theory			Eerde and Thierry (1996); Vroom (1964); Van	Good for attitude measure.	Based on employees' perception; no motivation if one or one more factor is zero.

Table 4.4 (Continued)

Goal-setting theory	Latham and Locke (1979); Locke and Latham (1990; 2002); Ordonez (2009)	Directly consistent with definition of employee motivation; used for both performance and satisfaction.	Undermine intrinsic motivation; employees' goals vary in different situations.
Justice theories	Adam (1965); Huseman et al., (1987)	Intensely link with work motivation and performance	Employees' emotions cannot easily be measured.
Job design	Hackman and Oldham (1976); Humphrey et al. (2007); Parker et al. (2001)	Take JCM as an example: related to intrinsic motivation.	Do not indicate the causality between motivation and satisfaction/ performance.
Big Five dimensions of personality	Barrick et al. (2001); Barrick et al., 2013	Efficient in predictions of employee job performance.	Not all dimensions have been evaluated in terms of their effect on employee job performance.

Source: Adapted from Armstrong and Taylor (2017); Arnold et al. (2016). Note: AM, autonomous motivation; CM, controlled motivation.

4.3.10 Integration of motivation theories

Theories of motivation and approaches have evolved over time (Dipietro et al., 2014). However, each theory of motivation has its own weaknesses (as presented in Table 4.4). Dermody et al. (2004) indicate that there is no one theory which is suitable for all employees. Additionally, Latham and Pinder (2005), reviewing literature on motivation, conclude that effectively motivating employees in the workplace requires the integration

of many motivational factors. According to Arnold et al. (2016), integrating existing theories of motivation to the key HRM issue of analysis of staff motivation is a trending.

The role of motivation in the enhancement of employee job satisfaction and performance will become more significant with the increased integration of motivation theories, in that these theories can be mutually supportive and offset each other's weaknesses. Locke and Latham (2004), who have several decades' research experience on goal-setting theory, draw on current meta-analysis to devise a model which integrates motivation theories. In their motivation model, need theory, personality theory, expectancy theory, goal-setting theory, justice theory, and job design are all used in explanation of how theories of motivation interact to influence job satisfaction and performance. Motivation processes used in their model begin with human needs (need theory). As noted in table 4.1, need theory does not show a strong relationship with human needs and employee behaviour (such as performance), therefore more theories need to be applied in order to strengthen the relationship between human needs and employee behaviour. Even though employees can be motivated to satisfy their needs, they nevertheless require high goal commitment (a moderator of goal-setting theory) to support the motivation process. In this way, goal-setting theory is one of the essential measures which support the motivational effect of need theory.

The above examples, indicated that integration of a number of motivation theories can be mutually supportive and offset mutual weakness to more effectively motivate employees. The author draws on the integration of motivation theories to analyse motivation strategies which enhance employee job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China.

4.4 A 20-year review of employee motivation in the hotel industry

The author reviewed academic articles about employees' motivation included in the following publications: Cornell Hospitality Quarterly (CHQ), International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management (IJCHM), International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration (IJHTA), International Journal of Hospitality Management (IJHM), Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research (JHTR), and Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism (JHRHT) which were among the top ten hospitality journals rated by McKercher et al. (2006). There was a note that CHQ was known as the Cornell Hotel & Restaurant Administration Quarterly until 2008, but it was still regarded as CHQ for the purposes of the study. As a first step in researching articles, the key words "employee + motivation" were respectively input to Emerald, Hospitality & Tourism Complete (included into EBSCO *Host*), and Web of Science which were three of the most commonly-used databases in hospitality research. Secondly, the number of journals used was limited to the six leading hospitality industry publications mentioned above, from the time period 1998 to 2017. Finally, 78 articles were identified from three databases (repetitive articles having been removed), and were then exported to EndNote. The review process established that 60 articles related to employee motivation.

Referring to Tsang and Hsu (2011) and Zhong et al. (2015) who conducted a systematic review of research into hospitality and tourism, analysis of the articles in this study focuses on overview of published articles on employee motivation, research locations, motivation theories/approaches utilised, research methods, and research gaps.

4.4.1 Overview of published articles about employee motivation

Among 60 articles published in the period 1998 to 2017, more than 50% were from IJHM and IJCHM, which accounted for 38.3% and 26.7% respectively. CHQ, IJHTA, and JHRHT had similar profiles, specifically 11.7%, 13.3%, and 8.3% separately. Only JHTR featured one article found on three databases. Compared to the previous decade (1998 to 2007) and the following one (2008 to 2017), the latter contained 76.7% (46 of 60), meaning that the majority of articles were from the last decade. This also indicates that researchers of tourism and hospitality have begun to take employee motivation seriously in recent years. This is consistent with Latham and Pinder (2005)'s conclusion that increasing numbers of researchers have recognised the importance of employee workplace motivation. More information is shown in Table 4.5:

Table 4.5: Publications by journal and year

Year	CHQ	IJCHM	IJHTA	IJHM	JHTR	JHRHT	Total
1998	0	2	0	1	0	0	3
1999	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
2000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2001	0	1	1	0	0	0	2
2002	0	0	1	0	0	1	2
2003	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
2004	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
2005	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2006	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
2007	0	1	0	1	0	1	3
2008	0	0	2	4	0	0	6
2009	0	0	1	1	0	0	2
2010	0	0	0	2	0	0	2
2011	1	4	0	3	0	1	9
2012	1	0	0	2	0	0	3
2013	4	0	0	3	0	0	7
2014	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
2015	0	2	2	2	0	0	6
2016	0	4	0	3	0	0	7
2017	1	0	0	1	0	0	2
Total	7	16	8	23	1	5	60

4.4.2 Research locations

Table 4.6 shows that the distribution of research locations was uneven. Most of the articles (45 of 60) presented research from developed countries or regions (Hong Kong, Ireland, Israel, South Korea, Taiwan, United States, United Kingdom) where hotel industry development is relatively advanced. From the economically-developed countries and regions represented, the United States ranked first, linking to the country's comprehensive strength and power. The United States, having the largest economy in the world, is the home of many leading international hotel groups (e.g. Choice Hotels, Hilton Worldwide, Hyatt Hotels Corporation, Marriott International) and has a high level of research potential. Hong Kong, a special administrative region of China, was part of the United Kingdom until 1997. It had become an economically-developed region and the development of its hotel industry was advanced, therefore the study considered Hong Kong as an independent region.

Of the eight articles researching China, six (Chen et al., 2017; Hon and Leung, 2011; Hon, 2012; Hon and Chan, 2013a; Hon and Chan, 2013b; Wu et al., 2013) were published in the *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*; the remaining two (Hon, 2011; Wei et al., 2012) were published in the *International Journal of Hospitality Management*. The study found a total of seven articles in the *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, but the location of six articles' research was China, indicating that this journal paid a relatively level of attention to research into Chinese hotels. In terms of publication year, all articles researching Chinese employee motivation were published in the six years prior to this study. It was noted that the increase in volume of hotel research into Chinese hotels was linked to growth in the Chinese economy and hotel industry sector. However, only three of eight articles (Chen et al., 2017; Wei et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2013) were written by authors from Chinese universities, while the other five were contributed by authors from Hong Kong's

universities. It can therefore be concluded that the research contribution from Chinese universities remains relatively low.

Table 4.6: Research locations

Rank	Country/region	Number
1	United States	22
2	China	8
3	Hong Kong	7
4	United Kingdom	5
4	Taiwan	5
6	South Korea	4
7	Turkey	2
8	Aruba	1
8	Ireland	1
8	India	1
8	Israel	1
8	Nigeria	1
8	Northern Cyprus	1
8	United Arab Emirates	1

4.4.3 Value of research into employee motivation in the hotel industry

Most researchers focus on employee job performance, satisfaction, or mitigating high employee turnover rate in the hotel industry through motivation measures (Babakus et al., 2008; Breiter et al., 2002; Brown and Arendt, 2011; Chiang et al., 2008; Chiang and Birtch, 2010; Chiang and Birtch, 2008; Chiang and Jang, 2008; Chen et al., 2017; Dawson et al., 2011; Dermody, 2002; Dermody et al., 2004; Dipietro et al., 2014; Dipietro and Condly, 2007; Groch, 2015; Gursoy et al., 2008; Hon and Chan, 2013b; Iplik et al., 2011; Joung et al., 2015; Kaurav et al., 2015; Karatepe and Uludag, 2007; Karen and Karen, 1998; Lam et al., 2001; Lam, 2003; Darren, 1998a; Darren, 1998b; Lee et al., 2015; Luria and Yagil, 2008; Michel et al., 2013; Niu, 2010; Papis, 2006; Qu et al., 2001; Wang, 2016; Wei et al., 2012; Wong et al., 1999; Wu et al., 2013). The amount of articles available indicates that the most frequently-researched issues are: motivational measures to improve employee job performance, satisfaction, or mitigation of staff turnover rates,

which is consistent with the objective of this study. Motivation measures supporting employee creativity were also a frequently-searched topic over the last six years, with eight researchers in reviewed articles having focused on this (Chang and Teng, 2017; Hon, 2011; Hon and Leung, 2011; Hon and Chan, 2013a; Horng et al., 2016; Kim and Lee, 2013; Tsai et al., 2015; Wang, 2016). Supporting employee creativity aims to improve staff performance, therefore this topic links to performance.

4.4.4 Motivation theories/approaches

Researchers need to use motivation theories and approaches to analyse employee motivation (Ambrose and Kulik, 1999), but different researchers have concentrated on motivation theories and approaches in different ways. The author has categorised the motivation theories/approaches adopted by the authors of 60 articles (see Table 4.6). In the light of Table 4.7, job design was the most frequent approach, but only two articles (Darren, 1998a; Darren, 1998b) drew from existing job design model (JCM) to test this model's reliability and validity in the motivation of hotels' employees. Among the remaining articles, some (Chen et al., 2017; Iplik et al., 2011; Jung and Yoon, 2016; Kaurav et al., 2015; Michel et al., 2013) designed models according to certain job characteristics, determinants, or features of job design to explain employee motivation, while the remainder analysed the importance of certain job characteristics, determinants, or aspects of job design to investigate employee motivation in the hotel industry. In Section 4.3.1, the author has indicated that job characteristics, determinants, and concerns are included within job design. Kovach's ten/twelve motivational factors are featured as either intrinsic or extrinsic. Among the articles reviewed, Breiter et al. (2002), Curtis et al. (2009), Dipietro et al. (2014), and Wong et al. (1999) refer to Kovach's ten/twelve motivational factors, which have been included as intrinsic or extrinsic motivators.

Economic game theory, social exchange theory, and goal-frame theory did not feature in the most commonly-used theories of motivation, and few of the reviewed articles drew on them. Economic game theory, which become “the best tool to tackle interactive processes with interdependent players” (Wei et al., 2012, p.1245), was referred to by Wei et al. (2012) to account for employee behaviour in the hotel industry. Goal-frame theory was applied to comprehend environmental psychology (Lindenberg and Steg, 2007). Miao and Wei (2013) drew on goal-frame theory to explain how to motivate hotel employees’ pro-environmental behaviour. Social exchange is defined as “voluntary actions of individuals that are motivated by the returns they are expected to bring from others, as well as social exchanges from relationships” (Ma and Qu, 2011, p.682). Leader-member exchange (LMX) and co-worker exchange (team-member exchange) are two forms of social exchange forms which motivate employees and link to their performance (Kamdar and Dyne, 2007; Ma and Qu, 2011). Some information on social exchange theory has been introduced in Chapter 3. Of the reviewed articles, Lam (2003), Ma and Qu (2011), and Wang (2016) use social exchange theory as a framework for the consideration of employee motivation.

Goal-setting theory, a prevalent and widely-researched motivation theory (Arnold et al., 2016; Latham and Pinder, 2005), was hardly referred to in articles published in the leading hospitality journals. The study contained only two articles related to goal-setting theory. Of these two articles, Niu (2010) observed that self-efficacy which was one of moderators in goal-setting theory, but did not analyse how to effectively motivate employees through setting a goal.

Table 4.7: Motivation theories or approaches used by reviewed articles

Theory/approach	Author(s)	Number
Job design	Chen et al. (2017); Dawson et al. (2011); Hon and Leung (2011); Iplik et al. (2011); Jung and Yoon (2016); Kaurav <i>et al.</i> (2015); Lam et al. (2001); Darren (1998a); Darren (1998b); Michel et al. (2013); Qu et al. (2001)	11
Extrinsic motivation	Chiang and Birtch (2008); Chiang and Birtch (2010); Dermody (2002); Dermody et al. (2004); Joung et al. (2015); Kim et al. (2011); Karen and Karen (1998); Mottiar (2016)	8
Intrinsic motivation	Babakus et al. (2008); Becker et al. (2012); Hon (2011); Karatepe and Uludag (2007)	4
Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation	Breiter et al. (2002); Chang and Teng (2017); Curtis et al. (2009); Dipietro et al. (2014); Wong et al. (1999); Xiong & King (2015)	6
Social exchange theory	Lam (2003); Ma and Qu (2011); Wang (2016)	3
Expectancy theory	Chiang et al. (2008); Chiang and Jang (2008)	2
Goal-setting theory	Kim and Lee (2013); Niu (2010)	2
Need theories	Liu and Arendt (2016); Li et al. (2013)	2
Justice theories	Luria and Yagil (2008); Tsai et al. (2015); Wu et al. (2013)	3
Goal-frame theory	Miao and Wei (2013)	1
Economic game theory	Wei et al. (2012)	1
Training	Arendt et al. (2014); Kalargyrou and Woods (2011);	2
Leadership	Brown and Arendt (2011); Gursay et al. (2008); Lam (2003)	3
Integration	Dipietro and Condly (2007); Hon and Chan (2013a); Lee et al. (2015)	3
Stress management	Gibbons and Gibbons (2007); Hon and Chan (2013b)	2
Employee emotional labour	Karatepe and Aleshinloye (2009); Karatepe and Tizabi (2011);	2
Self-determination theory	Gatling et al. (2016); Hon (2012); Kim et al. (2016)	3
Two-factor theory	Papis (2006)	1
Personality theory	Horng et al. (2016)	1

Among reviewed articles, only three integrated motivation theories in order to investigate employee motivation. (Dipietro and Condly, 2007; Hon and Chan, 2013a; Lee et al., 2015)

Dipietro and Condly (2007) drew on the commitment and necessary effort (CANE) model to analyse the impact of motivation on employee turnover. The CANE model is based on job design, whereas goal-setting theory indicates that goal commitment was decided by multiplication of task assessment, emotion, and task value (Clark, 1998). Within these

elements, emotion and task value (task significance) were respectively determinant and characteristic of job design; meanwhile, goal commitment was a moderator of goal theory (Arnold et al., 2016). Therefore, job design supported goal-setting theory in the CANE model. Hon and Chan (2013a) referred to theories of self-determination, leadership, and creativity in order to set up and assess a conceptual model of motivated employee creativity. Their study also implied that integration of theories contributed to establishment of the conceptual model. Lee et al. (2015) integrated self-determination theory with need theory to assess employee job satisfaction. In their study, according to self-determination theory, needs for health & safety and economic & family security are classified as extrinsic needs, while needs for self-actualisation and self-esteem, social status, and knowledge & aesthetic matters are considered as intrinsic. Their study then assessed the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic needs, and job satisfaction. Overall, three articles concurred that integration of motivation theories provided more potential to explore employee motivation and enabled theories to support each other, therefore it was appropriate and helpful to set up a valid theoretical model.

In terms of articles researched in China, Hon and Chan (2013a) applied theories on the integration of motivation (self-determination, leadership, and creativity), job design (Chen et al., 2017; Hon and Leung, 2011), intrinsic motivation (Hon, 2011), self-determination (Hon, 2012), stress management (Hon and Chan, 2013b), justice (Wu et al., 2013), and economic game (Wei et al., 2012), which were adopted.

4.4.5 Methods and research gap

Among the reviewed articles, 55 compiled surveys in order to collect data. Only four articles (Dermody, 2002; Dermody et al., 2004; Kalargyrou and Woods, 2011; Mottiar, 2016) were based on interviews, and one article (Gursoy et al., 2008) used observations

from a group discussion. Three of 60 articles (Chiang and Birtch, 2008; Chiang and Birtch, 2010; Liu and Arendt, 2016) used both interview and survey methods to collect data, which means that there remains a lack of articles which combine interview and survey methodology. For this reason, the author of this study endeavours to draw on data obtained from both interviews and surveys.

In reviewed articles, little research explores the effect of autonomous motivation on employee performance and job satisfaction. Research which considers personality and learning goal orientation as motivators also remains scant in the hotel industry. However, as previously explained, personality and learning goal orientation are important issues for IHCs due to the service-oriented nature of their business, and the fact that they are correlated with autonomy. Further, only three of them integrated motivation theories which shed light on employee motivation and theories of mutual support which could offset mutual weaknesses. This study has indicated that consideration of motivation theories contributes to the development of a credible theoretical model. The author therefore seeks to integrate theories of motivation to support the development of a theoretical model which identifies the relationships between employee motivation, job performance, and satisfaction. The author specifically attempts to investigate how personality (the 'Big Five' dimensions of personality) and learning goal orientation (goal-setting theory) positively impact on employee job performance and satisfaction through employee autonomous motivation (self-determination theory).

In terms of IHCs, the majority of articles research employees working in domestic hotels or international hotel chains operating in home countries (such as the Holiday Inn operation within the UK), but research into international hotel chains operational in foreign countries (such as Holiday Inn's operations in China, Japan, and South Korea) remain insufficient. Among 60 reviewed articles, only Chang and Teng (2017), Dipietro

et al. (2014) Hon and Chan (2013a), Karatepe and Tizabi (2011), Kim et al. (2011), and Wang (2016) researched IHCs' operation in foreign countries.

With regard to the Chinese context, articles about the Chinese hotel sector published in leading hospitality journals are gradually increasing, but only Hon and Chan (2013a) have researched international hotel chains operational in China. No reviewed articles researching relevant operations in China included consideration of Chinese characteristics or culture in their analyses of motivation, instead, testing the validity and reliability of general motivators in the Chinese context. As noted in Chapter Three, supervisor-subordinate (Sr-Se) guanxi is a challenging HRM issue for IHCs in China, therefore this study represents an attempt to introduce supervisor-subordinate guanxi into the theoretical model, which in turn involves Chinese characteristics.

4.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, this Chapter provides a review of employee motivation and the role of autonomy in motivation at IHCs in general, and China specifically, in order to meet the first and third objectives of Aim One. Critical review of the literature relevant to types and theories of motivation relevant to employees in the hotel industry indicates the significance of employee autonomous motivation, five dimensions of personality and learning goal orientation for the purposes of this research. Systematic review of the relevant review in relation to employee motivation indicates that there are few studies which investigate the ways in which the theories of five dimensions of personality and learning goal orientation impact on employee autonomous motivation; these in turn are capable of contributing to improved employee job performance and the improvement of job satisfaction at IHCs in China; Sr-Se guanxi, a characteristic of Chinese culture, should be also considered into the relationships among employee autonomous motivation, job

performance, and satisfaction. The author endeavours to consider theories on the five dimensions of personality, learning goal orientation, employee autonomous motivation, Sr-Se guanxi, employee job performance, and employee job satisfaction as constructs of this study's initial theoretical model. The following Chapter provides details of how the initial theoretical model is developed.

Chapter 5 The initial theoretical model

5.1 Introduction

Prior to testing how employee autonomous motivation impacts on employee performance and job satisfaction at international hotel chains (IHCs) in China, it is necessary to develop a theoretical model to present the potential relationships between the three constructs. Based on Chapter Four, which proposes potential constructs capable of influencing employee job performance and satisfaction, this Chapter hypothesises the potential relationships between constructs and develops an initial theoretical model of the structural relationships among employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at IHCs in China in accordance with the literature review. This Chapter aims to meet the fourth objective of Aim One.

The Chapter consists of three Sections: Section One proposes the hypotheses of the direct relationships between constructs, Section Two describes the possible mediating effects of the model and Section Three proposes the initial theoretical model of the study.

5.2 Hypotheses of the direct relationships between constructs

5.2.1 The relationship between personality and employee autonomous motivation

The research of Barrick et al. (2001), Chiaburu et al. (2011), and Harris and Fleming (2017) present the validity of the ‘Big Five’ dimensions of personality to predict employee performance. Conscientiousness, in particular, shows the strongest relationship with employee performance in their research. Due to IHCs’ status as service-oriented

organisations and their dominance in the hotel industry, all five dimensions of personality are important for employee performance.

Employees' conscientiousness, emotional stability, extroversion, and agreeableness have positive impacts on customers satisfaction (Cai and He, 2010; Tian, 2014). Fernet et al. (2004) demonstrate that autonomous motivation is negatively related to anxiety. Openness to experience contributes to employee creativity in the hotel industry (Horng et al., 2016). Further, according to the theory of purposeful work behaviour advanced by Barrick et al. (2013), the concept of five dimensions of personality has an impact on employee job performance and satisfaction, linked to the need of autonomy. Therefore, the study proposes that:

H1a. Personality is positively related to employee autonomous motivation

5.2.2 The relationship between learning goal orientation and employee autonomous motivation

Several decades' research has strongly supported goal setting theory, in which the whole motivation process from goal-setting to performance achievement is very clear (Arnold et al., 2016). Following the goal-setting cycle, improved performance will result in employee job satisfaction (Arnold et al., 2016), therefore goal-setting theory is related to both employee job performance and satisfaction, which fits the objectives of this study. Setting learning goals for staff is crucial for international hotel chains to retain competitive advantage.

As previously mentioned, this study has established that increasing numbers of researchers have in recent years focused on the topic of employee creativity, which in

turn enhances employees' performance and the development of hotels. To improve employees' creativity, it is necessary to set learning goals rather than performance goals, so that employees' knowledge and skills will be developed (Kim and Lee, 2013). Performance goals mean that employees concentrate on completion of their tasks, but learning goals require employees to master more knowledge and skills (Seijts and Latham, 2005). When employees' performance goals are challenging, they need to improve their knowledge and skills in order to complete the task (Arnold et al., 2016). In turn, after employees' knowledge and abilities are enhanced, they will be willing to aim towards further challenging goals (Arnold et al., 2016). In other words, achievement of learning goals completion will contribute to the completion of future performance goals (Seijts and Latham, 2012). In the case of expatriates, learning goals regarding study of Chinese culture and language are appropriate. Further, learning goal orientation contributes to meeting the development of competence, which is a driver of motivation in self-determination theory (Ryan and Deci, 2000). When employees feel competent to deal with complicated or challenging tasks, their autonomy may be enhanced. Thus, the study proposes that:

H1b. Learning goal orientation is positively related to employee autonomous motivation

5.2.3 The relationship among employee autonomous motivation, employee job performance, and employee job satisfaction

Many previous studies (Chang and Teng, 2017; Dipietro et al., 2014; Hon and Chan, 2013a; Wang, 2016) have demonstrated that employee motivation is positively-related to employee job performance at IHCs. As the nature of autonomous motivation is self-expression, this highlights the need for individuals to internalise the external regulations and values applicable to their roles, while autonomous motivation contributes to positive

behaviours (Gagné and Deci, 2005). Graves et al., (2013), Hon (2012), and Kim et al., (2016) contend that autonomous motivation positively impacts on employees' behaviours in the hotel industry. Thus, the study proposes that:

H2. Employee autonomous motivation is positively related to employee job performance

Two-factor theory proposes that motivators (intrinsic factors of motivation) keep employees satisfied, while hygiene factors (external needs/extrinsic motivation) prevent them from feeling dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966). Lundberg et al. (2009), Mohsin et al. (2013), and Sledge et al. (2008) demonstrated that pay is a hygiene factor rather than a motivator in the hotel industry. Zopiatis et al. (2014) argue that external needs contribute to employee job satisfaction. In the field of hospitality research, there are numerous researchers (Amissah et al., 2016; Breiter et al., 2002; Dermody et al., 2004; Dipietro et al., 2014; Kuang, 2013; Qiu et al., 2015; Wu and Wang, 2008; Yang, 2014) who conclude that pay as a extrinsic need for employees is the primary motivator of employee job satisfaction improvement in the hotel industry, because low pay is a significant problem in this sector.

However, as the differences between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic needs are in practice vague, and extrinsic motivation varies according to the degree of autonomy available, self-determination theory indicates that internalising external regulations and needs contributes to the development of a positive attitude at work (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Gagné and Deci, 2005; Ryan and Deci, 2000). Thus, the study proposes that:

H3. Employee autonomous motivation is positively related to employee job satisfaction

Numerous studies (Aksu and Aktas, 2005; Gu and Siu, 2009; Karatepe, 2012; Matzler et al., 2004; Rich et al., 2010; Yeh, 2013; Ziegler et al., 2012) conclude that employee job satisfaction contributes to employee job performance improvement in the hotel industry. Judge et al. (2001) argue that good employee performance additionally leads to job satisfaction. In other words, good performance contributes to a positive attitude (Arnold et al., 2016). In the goal-setting cycle, motivation leads to employee performance improvement which in turn contributes to job satisfaction (Arnold et al., 2016). Thus, the study proposes that:

H4. Employee job performance is positively related to employee job satisfaction

5.2.4 The relationship between employee job performance and supervisor-subordinate guanxi

The development of positive guanxi with supervisors depends not only on activities or interactions outside the workplace, but also on activities or interactions in the course of work activities (Mejia et al., 2018). Yang and Lau (2015) confirm that individual competence in the completion of work tasks is related to supervisor-subordinate guanxi. In other words, capability to complete complex tasks is a valid method for the promotion of interaction with superiors (Yang and Lau, 2015). Therefore, this study proposes that:

H5. Employee job performance is positively related to supervisor-subordinate guanxi

5.2.5 The relationship between supervisor-subordinate guanxi and employee job satisfaction

The critical review of relevant literature in Chapter Three and Chapter Four has indicated that there is little research into the relationship between supervisor-subordinate guanxi and employee job satisfaction at IHCs in China. Although social exchange theory is not one of the most commonly-used theories for employee motivation, it reflects a crucial social phenomenon in China, which is guanxi. In Chapter 3, the author has reviewed several articles published in *Tourism Tribune*, which analyse employee turnover in the sector in China. Among these articles, Duan et al. (2015) and Tian and Zuo (2013) refers to the content of social exchange theory. Tian and Zuo (2013) contend that the hotel industry needs to concentrate on the coordinated development of its human capital, social capital (guanxi is one of forms of social capital in China), and psychological capital, but their result also shows that social capital is not as important to employee job satisfaction.

Further, in their review of 60 journal articles, Lam (2003), Ma and Qu (2011), and Wang (2016) draw on social exchange theory to analyse employee motivation in the hospitality industry. Lam (2003) demonstrated that leader-member exchange and team-member exchange have a moderating impact on organisational commitment and employee turnover. Ma and Qu (2011) regard leader-member exchange and co-worker exchange as motivators of good organisational citizenship behaviour. Wang (2016) uses only leader-member exchange to consider the influence of leader-exchange influence on performance. These three studies all refer to leader-member exchange, suggesting that leader-member exchange may be among the most frequently-used social exchange theories. However, as discussed in Chapter 3, supervisor-subordinate guanxi in the Chinese situation is different to leader-member exchange originating in Western culture (Chen and Tjosvold, 2006; Yang and Lau, 2015).

Duan et al., (2015) reported on research methods for building employee's trust in their leaders and improving employees' job satisfaction. As trust is based on the reciprocity in the concept of guanxi, leaders' trust in their staff is equally significant (Bedford, 2011). In China, gaining the trust of leaders not only requires employees to be conscientious at work, but also to develop positive guanxi with their leaders. Subordinates may feel more confident and passionate with working when they develop a positive guanxi with their supervisors, because they think that they are more important than others in the supervisors' perception and they should live up to supervisors' trust (Cheung et al., 2009). When employees know that their leaders have a high level of trust in them, they know that they may gain more promotion opportunities, which in turn enhances their job satisfaction. The study proposes that

H6. Supervisor-subordinate guanxi is positively related to employee job satisfaction

5.3 Mediation

Mediation concerns the indirect relationships between correlated constructs (Sarstedt et al., 2014). Mediation occurs when a third construct (also known as a mediator) has an impact on the relationship between two other correlated constructs (Hair et al., 2017). Specifically, as the exogenous construct changes, the mediating construct alters; this in turn results in the change of the endogenous construct (Hair et al., 2017). In this study, two groups of possible mediating effects are considered.

In self-determination theory, autonomous motivation contributes both to the development of positive behaviours and attitudes (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Gagné and Deci, 2005; Ryan and Deci, 2000). According to Judge et al. (2001), one of the possible links between

employee job performance and satisfaction is that the former is a mediator of the relationship between employee job satisfaction and another construct. Mediating effects can improve employee job satisfaction (Arnold et al., 2016). The study therefore proposes that employee job performance mediates the relationship between employee autonomous motivation and job satisfaction.

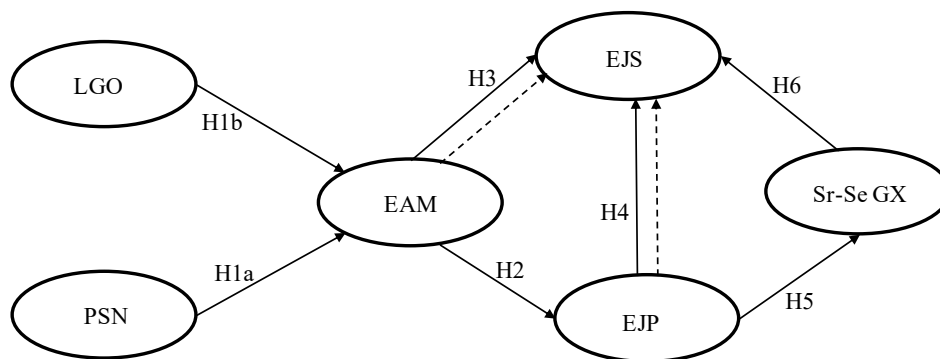
Employees who achieve the optimum job performance but do not enjoy positive guanxi with their supervisors may not receive promotion opportunities or recognition. In this regard, their job satisfaction may be not enhanced; it may instead impact negatively on their job satisfaction (Cheung et al., 2009; Han and Altman, 2009). Further, Yang and Lau (2015) demonstrated that guanxi moderates the relationship between performance and career success in the Chinese hotel industry. According to Zopiatis et al. (2014), career development can be regarded as a indicator of employee job satisfaction. The study therefore proposes that supervisor-subordinate guanxi mediates the relationship between employee performance and job satisfaction.

5.4 The initial theoretical model

Based on the research hypotheses, the initial theoretical model was developed (presented in Figure 5.1). In this model, personality (PSN) and learning goal orientation (LGO) are antecedents as well as motivators. Employee autonomous motivation (EAM) is the process, and employee job performance (EJP) and employee job satisfaction (EJS) are outcomes. Additionally, employee job performance and supervisor-subordinate guanxi (Sr-Se GX) are considered as two mediators.

The research hypotheses and the initial theoretical model were developed through literature review. To enhance the integrity, credibility, and confidence of this research,

the author conducted interviews to update the theoretical model before assessing the model using the quantitative method. Details on the method of updating the theoretical model are presented in the following two Chapters.



Note: —————> Represents the direct relationship
 - - - - -> Represents the indirect relationship via the mediator

Figure 5.1 The initial theoretical model

5.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, this Chapter meets the objective of developing the initial theoretical model in correspondence with the literature review. In the development of the initial theoretical model, six hypotheses on direct relationships between constructs were proposed. The study additionally proposes two types of mediating effect: firstly, that employee job performance mediates the relationship between employee autonomous motivation and job satisfaction; secondly, that supervisor-subordinate guanxi mediates the relationship between employee job performance and satisfaction. In the following Chapter (Chapter 6), the research methodology used is explained, including the approach to the updating of the theoretical model. The results of updating the theoretical model are presented in Chapter 7.

Chapter 6 Research methodology

6.1 Introduction

Bryman and Bell (2011) and Saunders et al. (2016), argue that it is necessary for the researcher to be able to explain how to conduct and complete the research, and justify the selection of methods suitable for the research. The previous Chapter proposes the research hypotheses and develops the initial theoretical model. This Chapter provides the results of research methodology used for this study.

This Chapter consists of six Sections. Section One presents this study's philosophical position. Section Two shows the research approach employed for this study. Sections Three and Four explain stages one and two of the research process, respectively. Section Five presents ethical consideration of this study. This Chapter concludes with Section Six.

6.2 Philosophical position

Research philosophy, defined as “a set or system of beliefs stemming from the study of the fundamental nature of knowledge, reality, and existence” (Waite and Hawker, 2009, p. 685), is the foundation on which the paradigm of enquiry is based, forming a framework for the design and conduct of the research (Collis and Hussey, 2014). Knowledge, reality, and existence (elements of the definition of philosophy) are related to ontology, epistemology, and methodology (Howell, 2013), which means that these systems can enrich researchers' philosophy.

6.2.1 Ontology

Ontology considers the nature of reality; it can be divided into objectivism and subjectivism for analysis (Saunders et al., 2016). Ontological objectivism indicates that reality, composed of immutable structures and regulations, exists independently of human awareness and thought (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). However, subjectivism of ontology implies that social phenomena and their meanings are human constructs which are continuously revised with social development (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

This study aims to assess how employee autonomous motivation impacts on employee job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China. The author holds the view that employee motivation conforms to the relevant theories of, and approaches to, motivation. In other words, existing theories on, and approaches to, motivation are employed by the researcher to analyse the employee autonomous motivation of IHCs' staff, rather than observation of motivation measures obtained by working in IHCs. Thus, the ontology of this study falls into the realm of objectivism. This does not mean, however, that the study's ontology is highly objective. Extremely objective ontology and naïve realism indicate that reality exists and can be comprehensively understood by researchers (Guba and Lincoln, 2005). Although existing theories of, and approaches to, motivation can be used to motivate staff in the workplace, they are still in the process of development. For example, JCM, discussed in Chapter Four, has been further developed by later academics (e.g. Barrick et al., 2013; Humphrey et al., 2007; Morgeson and Humphrey, 2006; Parker et al., 2001; Parker, 2014); equity theory has been included with justice theories (Arnold et al., 2016). Each motivation theory or approach has its own strengths and weaknesses, therefore no perfect theory of, or approach to, motivation can be used for employee motivation (Dermody et al., 2004). Thus, the author takes the stance that all theories of, and approaches to, motivation cannot be understood in their entirety by a researcher.

6.2.2 Epistemology

Epistemology concerns aspects of the relationship between an investigator and their investigation (Howell, 2013), and what constitutes acceptable knowledge (Bryman and Bell, 2011); this can also be discussed from the perspectives of objectivism and subjectivism. On the one hand, objectivism in epistemology regards the investigator and their investigation as independent from one other, therefore only observably and measurably social phenomena can be considered as acceptable knowledge; on the other hand, subjectivity of epistemology assumes that the investigation cannot be detached from the investigator's experience and beliefs (Collis and Hussey, 2014).

The author believes that the topic of employee autonomous motivation at IHCs in China is observable, and that is a valid and worthwhile issue for research, after identification of the research gap and review of the extant relevant literature. The study draws on theories of, and approaches to, motivation, and concepts arising from the literature review to establish the initial theoretical model, which forms the foundation of the questionnaire design. Data collection was facilitated by use of an online questionnaire, and a statistical software package was employed for data analysis, therefore the research can be regarded as objectivist. This does not, however, mean that the separation of the researcher from the object of their research. This is because some of the employees involved were interviewed by the author in order to assess the rationality of the theoretical model, and to guide the design of the questionnaire.

6.2.3 Methodology

After ontology and epistemology have been considered, the researcher needs to consider the most appropriate methodology for the completion of the research. Methodology

concerns how a researcher tests and demonstrates their findings and decides which research methods are applicable (Howell, 2013). Prevailing methodologies include experiment, survey, archiving and documentary research, case study, ethnography, action research, grounded theory, narrative inquiry, and heuristic inquiry (Gray, 2009; Saunders et al., 2016). In terms of objectivism, a large sample size may be chosen by the researcher (Collis and Hussey, 2014), who then uses quantitative methods (Finn et al., 2000). In contrast, subjectivism requires the researcher to use a small sample and a qualitative method (Collis and Hussey, 2014; Finn et al., 2000).

Because the author considers that the researcher and the object of their research are not entirely distinct from one another, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is used in this study. Interview as a qualitative method is used to evaluate the rationality of the theoretical model and to guide questionnaire design. Questionnaire as a quantitative research method is used to test the hypotheses. Popper (1994) points out that no theory can be developed unless it can be openly criticised. It is impossible to attribute all phenomena to existing theories, due to differences in eras, situations, and cultures. The study's hypotheses are related to: goal-setting theory, 'Big Five' dimensions of personality, social exchange theory, and transformational leadership; these have been thoroughly researched to gain more understanding of employee workplace motivation. This does not, however, mean that all hypotheses would be relevant to the Chinese situation, and the author has critically reviewed theories of motivation in Chapter Four. If any hypothesis is rejected after data analysis, the study can falsify motivation theories.

6.2.4 Paradigm of inquiry

An individual researcher's philosophical position is expressed through their selected paradigm of inquiry (Saunders et al., 2016). The paradigm is defined as "a cluster of

beliefs and dictates which, for scientists in a particular discipline, influence what should be studied, how research should be done, and how results should be interpreted” (Bryman, 1988, p. 4). Therefore, a paradigm of inquiry can be divided for discussion into ontology, epistemology, and methodology; there are several paradigms of inquiry due to difference in degrees of objectivism and subjectivism (Howell, 2013). According to Heron and Reason (1997), paradigms of inquiry can be divided into positivism, post-positivism, critical theory, constructivism, and participation. Each paradigm has its individual ontology, epistemology, and methodology, and can be distinguished from other paradigms. Among these, positivism and post-positivism are embedded into paradigms of objectivism, while critical theory, constructivism, and participation are included in paradigms of subjectivism (Guba and Lincoln, 2005). Compared to positivism and post-positivism, positivism is extremely objectivist, but post-positivism is modified objectivism (Guba and Lincoln, 2005). Popper (2002) gives the example of swans to define post-positivism is: we normally see white swans but cannot affirm that all swans are white; instead, the existence of one black swan can prove that not all swans are white.

As analysed above, this study’s ontology, epistemology, and methodology all fall into objectivism, but are not highly objective. Instead, they use modified objectivism, which is embedded into a post-positivism paradigm. Table 6.1 summarises traits of positivism and post-positivism and identifies how post-positivism is applied in the study. The following Section continues discussion of the methodological process of the study, which is consistent with post-positivism.

Table 6.1: Paradigms of objectivism

Item	Positivism	Post-positivism	Post-positivism in the study
Ontology	Reality exists and can be thoroughly understood. <i>Naïve realism</i>	Reality exists, but cannot be thoroughly understood by human beings. <i>Critical realism</i>	Employee motivation conforms to motivation theories and approaches which are still developing and cannot be thoroughly understood by the research.
Epistemology	The researcher is thoroughly detached from what is researched; its findings are true.	The researcher is not thoroughly detached from the research; its findings are probably true.	The research project is observable and it is valid as a research topic; the researcher is not thoroughly separated from the research.
Methodology	Verification of hypotheses by experiment; quantitative methods.	Falsification of hypotheses, and qualitative methods may be included.	Falsification of hypotheses; quantitative method (questionnaire) and qualitative method (interview) are combined.

Source: First three columns adapted from Heron and Reason (1997)

6.3 Research approach

Gray (2009) divides the deductive process into seven stages. The first two stages involve specifying the organisational mission and selecting a set of suitable theories for research. The third stage involves the development of hypotheses in the light of the chosen theories, and selection of methods to test the hypotheses. The fifth stage is the testing of these hypotheses, while the sixth stage involves accepting or rejecting these hypotheses after data analysis. If the hypotheses are rejected, revision of theories may be required, as the final stage. The inductive approach is used to explain phenomena, and framework or theory will be constructed and/or applied after data analysis (Gray, 2009). Effectively, deduction and induction are mutually exclusive (Saunders et al., 2016).

The theoretical model and hypotheses are based on literature review, selected motivation theories, the research gap, and the semi-structured interviews. Thereafter, the hypotheses are tested using research methods to inform their acceptance or rejection. The study is

therefore consistent with the process of deduction. The deductive approach is appropriate for the philosophical position, which is positivist or post-positivist (Howell, 2013).

Quantitative research, generally linked to the deductive approach, is used for the collection and analysis of numerical data; qualitative research, normally associated with the inductive approach, is appropriate for non-numerical (language) data collection and analysis (Collis and Hussey, 2014). The author adopts the deductive approach to test the hypotheses, and the questionnaire was used to obtain numerical data during the research process, which is consistent with the requirements of quantitative research. Finn et al. (2000) explain that quantitative research requires a large sample size in order to seek objective reality, whereas qualitative research deals with complex reality using a small sample. Because the study's philosophical position indicates that the author continues to pursue objectivism, this study principally employs quantitative research.

There has been a growing trend since 2000 for social science researchers to combine the quantitative and qualitative approaches. Saunders et al. (2016) identified ten advantages of mixed method research: initiation, facilitation, complementarity, interpretation, generalisability, diversity, problem solving, focus, triangulation, and confidence. Bryman (2016) identified 16 methods in which mixed methods research can be carried out, including: triangulation, offset, completeness, process, different research questions, explanation, unexpected results, instrument development, sampling, credibility, context, illustration, utility, confirmation and discovery, diversity of views, and enhancement or building upon quantitative/qualitative findings.

Based on the advantages of mixed methods research highlighted by Bryman (2016), Finn et al. (2000) and Saunders et al. (2016), the author advances rationales for the use of mixed methods research in this study. Because the initial theoretical model was proposed

through literature review, the author employed qualitative method (interview) to update the model and inform the questionnaire design, which enabled the conduct of quantitative research (questionnaire). According to the requirements of mixed methods research, the research reflected facilitation, completeness, different aims, sampling, credibility and confidence (as presented in Table 6.2). In short, the main approach of this study was quantitative, while qualitative approach played a supporting role. This was consistent with the type of mixed methods design proposed by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011).

Table 6.2: Rationales to adopting mixed methods research in the study

Rationale	Explanation
Initiation	Qualitative research (interview) in the study contributed to the development of a theoretical model and the questionnaire design.
Facilitation	Qualitative research led to a new and significant insight (transformational leadership), which was not included in the initial model formed through literature review. This was followed up by using quantitative research.
Completeness	The research offers a more comprehensive understanding of its subject within its research field.
Different research aims	Qualitative research contributed to the attainment of Aim One, while quantitative research enabled the achievement of Aim Two.
Sampling	After conducting qualitative research, social networking in the hotel industry was expanded, which contributed to quantitative data collection.
Credibility	Adopting two methods enhanced the integrity of findings.
Confidence	Qualitative research guided the questionnaire design, which made quantitative research and findings more authoritative.

Source: Adapted from Bryman (2016), Finn et al. (2000) and Saunders et al. (2016)

The study's inquiry paradigm was post-positivism, which included both qualitative and quantitative research (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009). The study also addressed the research gap revealed by the fact that little research has been conducted into about employee autonomous motivation in the hotel industry used mixed methods. For example, among the systematically- reviewed articles in Chapter Four, 56 were published after 2000, but only three of them (Chiang and Birtch, 2008; Chiang and Birtch, 2010; Liu and Arendt, 2016) combined quantitative and qualitative approaches. Because mixed methods were employed in the study, two stages of the research process were developed. Figure 6.1

shows all stages of the research process. Sections 6.4 and 6.5 define and describe research purpose, strategy, design, data collection method and data analysis used at the first and second stages.

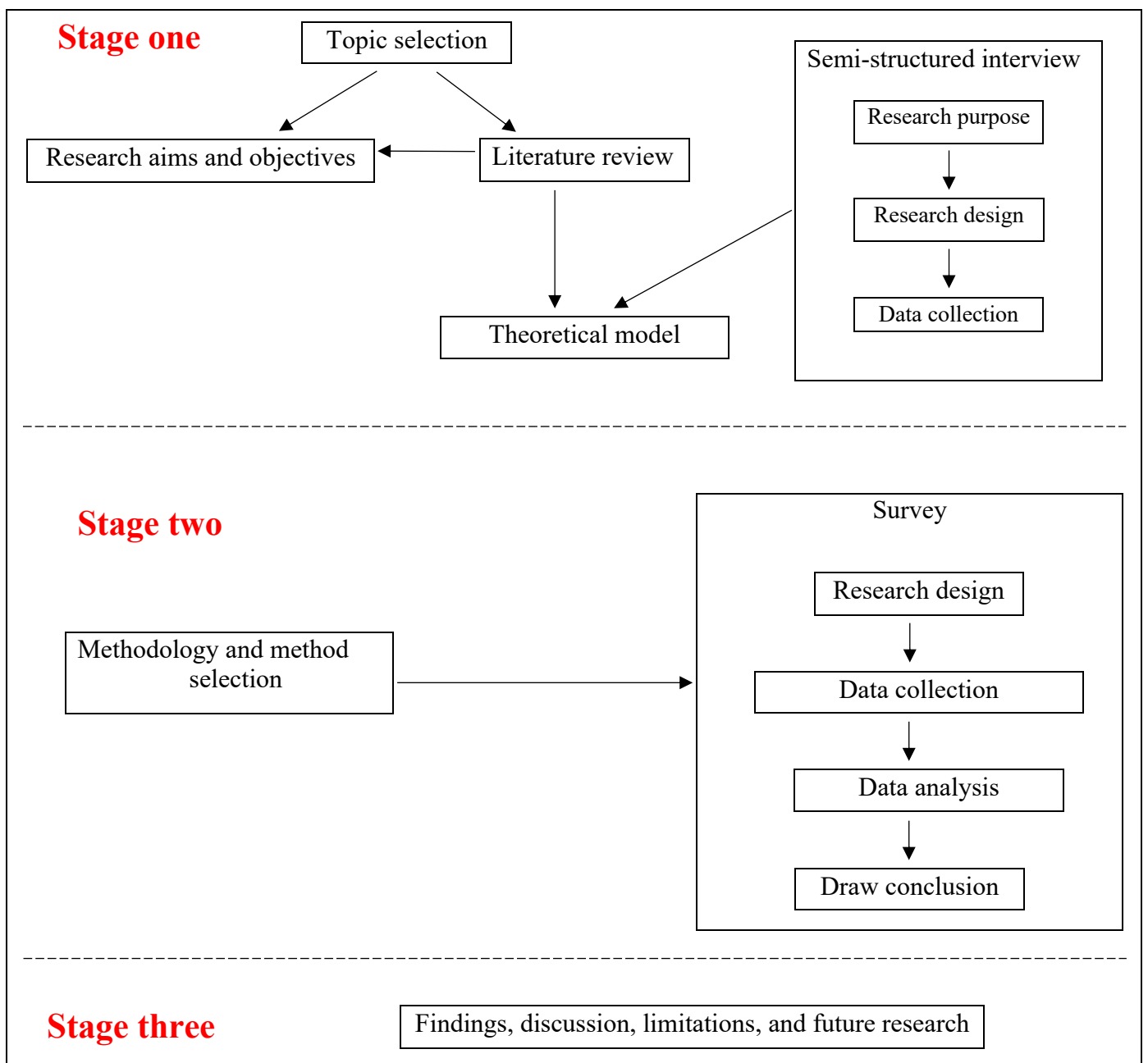


Figure 6.1: Research process

6.4 Stage one of research process

6.4.1 Research purpose

At the first stage, the author developed the initial model based on a critical review of employee motivation, performance and job satisfaction in the relevant literature. To update the model and increase its credibility, qualitative approach was employed. This approach also contributed to the proposition of hypotheses, questionnaire design and preparation for quantitative research.

6.4.2 Research strategy

A research strategy, which is a plan for how to answer the research question, can be considered as a methodology which influences the choice of methods (Collis and Hussey, 2014). Prevailing methodologies have been presented in 6.2, specifically: experiment, survey, archival and documentary research, case study, ethnography, action research, grounded theory, narrative inquiry, and heuristic inquiry (Gray, 2009; Saunders et al., 2016). Saunders et al., (2016) reported that a case study approach produces deep data on its real-life environment, and a person, a group, an organisation, a change process or an event can be considered as a case for the purposes of case study research. Because deep data can be obtained from case study research, it contributes to theory development (Yin, 2014).

In the study, qualitative research was used to refine and complete the theoretical model, therefore regarding employees of IHCs in China as ‘cases’ played an important role in obtaining deep data on employee autonomous motivation, job performance and satisfaction. Because investigating staff in a range of IHCs within China was more likely

to meet the aims of the study, an employee was regarded as a ‘case’. In comparison to a single case, multiple cases allow replication (Saunders et al., 2016). To fulfil the study’s aims and fill the research gap in the hotel sector, it was necessary to classify employees’ positions. Therefore, one single case was insufficient to meet the research aim. Instead, multiple cases, which provided more evidence about the determinants of employee autonomous motivation, job satisfaction and performance, and how autonomous motivation impacts on job performance and satisfaction of employees, were used.

6.4.3 Research design

(1) Semi-structured interview

The author employed the mixed methods approach in the expectation that the qualitative research would support the quantitative research, therefore interview was considered as the secondary research method, and was employed at the first stage of the whole research process. Arksey and Knight (1999, p.32) indicate that “interviewing is a powerful way of helping people to make explicit things that have hitherto been implicit – to articulate their tacit perceptions, feelings and understandings”. Interview is a method of data collection which requires interviewees to express their thoughts and feelings through answering questions (Collis and Hussey, 2014). The rationality of the initial model was assessed in the light of the interview data, and the questionnaire design was informed, increasing its validity for the purposes of primary data collection and analysis.

Interview was specifically divided into three types: structured interview, semi-structured interview, and unstructured interview (Howell, 2013). Because structured interview is most appropriate for quantitative research, it was not adopted at this stage (Saunders et al., 2016). Of the remaining two types, semi-structured interviewing was selected and

used in this study. The selection rationale for the use of semi-structured interviewing were twofold: data collection relies on the interviewer's listening and communication abilities and is therefore highly challenging (Finn et al., 2000). In contrast, a semi-structured interview had the flexibility of an unstructured interview, but posed key questions to render data collection and analysis easier (Finn et al., 2000). Secondly, semi-structured interviews can be used to calculate the causal relationships between variables (Saunders et al., 2016). This research is to investigate how employee autonomous motivation impacts on job performance and satisfaction. Specifically, employee autonomous motivation is an independent variable, while employee job performance and satisfaction are dependent variables.

(2) Development of interview

Based on literature review of employee autonomous motivation, job performance and satisfaction (Dermody et al., 2004; Liu and Arendt, 2016; Qiu et al., 2015; Wong and Li, 2015), semi-structured interviews which list key questions were beneficial for the identification of the main determinants of employee autonomous motivation, job performance and satisfaction, therefore the decision was made to conduct face-to-face semi-structured interviews. After referring to Dermody et al. (2004), Liu and Arendt (2016), and Wong and Li (2015), seven interview questions were developed as follows:

Q1. What characteristics motivated you to seek work in IHCs?

Q2. What primarily motivates you to work in IHCs?

Q3. Please indicate your overall level of job performance with your current employer/hotel?

Q4. What primary factors do you think are important to enhance your job performance?

Q5. Please indicate your overall level of job satisfaction with your current employer/hotel?

Q6. What primary factors do you think are important to enhance your job satisfaction?

6.4.4 Data collection

Initially, four employees working at IHCs in China participated in online interviews as a pilot study in July 2017. The pilot study aimed to estimate the duration of each interview and identify which topics were appropriate for interviewees. For the main fieldwork, all interviews were conducted in IHCs in Chongqing between August 2017 and June 2018. Chongqing is the central city of China's Western Development area, as well as the Chinese municipality (Chongqing Municipal People's Government, 2017). This city has experienced dramatic economic development since becoming a municipality in 1997, with a GDP growth rate in 2015 and 2016 ranked first nationwide (Chongqing Municipal People's Government, 2017; China, 2017). Economic development of Chongqing has led to the entry of more IHCs since 2000. Chongqing is also the author's hometown, therefore a high level of local knowledge and social networks have been used.

Purposive sampling meant that the author was required to choose interviewees from their own judgement to meet the research aim(s) and objectives (Saunders et al., 2016), therefore this sampling method was selected. In order to obtain data from different types of staff, positions were divided into: non-supervisory employee, supervisor, manager and director. At first, the author conducted 21 interviews, however only two non-supervisory employees participated. The researcher's supervisors pointed out that interviewing more non-supervisory employees was necessary for data analysis. Furthermore, according to Galvin (2015), more than 30 semi-structured interviews definitely achieve data 'saturation'. Guest et al. (2006) present that more than 30 interviews are recommended to test the association between constructs. The qualitative research of this study is to test the association between employee motivation, job performance, and satisfaction. 31

interviews were ultimately completed, across seven different international hotel groups in Chongqing, and the sample size is suited to this research. In total, 12 non-supervisory employees (numbered E1-E12), nine supervisors (numbered S1-S9), seven managers (numbered M1-M7), and three directors (numbered D1-D3) were interviewed. The profile of interviewees is presented in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Interviewees profile

Number	Employee position	International hotel group	Gender
E1	Non-supervisor employee	Hyatt Hotels Corporation	Female
E2		Marriott International	Female
E3		Marco Polo Hotels	Female
E4		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female
E5		InterContinental Hotels Group	Male
E6		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female
E7		Marriott International	Female
E8		Marriott International	Male
E9		Marriott International	Male
E10		Hilton Worldwide	Female
E11		Hilton Worldwide	Female
E12		Hilton Worldwide	Female
S1	Supervisor	Hilton Worldwide	Female
S2		InterContinental Hotels Group	Male
S3		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female
S4		Hyatt Hotels Corporation	Female
S5		Marco Polo Hotels	Male
S6		Marco Polo Hotels	Male
S7		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female
S8		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female
S9		Marriott International	Male
M1	Manager	Hilton Worldwide	Male
M2		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female
M3		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female
M4		Kempinski Hotels	Male
M5		Marriott International	Female
M6		Marco Polo Hotels	Female
M7		Marriott International	Female
D1	Director	Hyatt Hotels Corporation	Female
D2		Hyatt Hotels Corporation	Female
D3		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female

6.4.5 Data analysis

A transcript was made of each interview, after which the study adopted the framework analysis proposed by Ritchie and Spencer (1994) to analyse and explain the data obtained. Ritchie and Spencer (1994) recommend that framework analysis should be divided into four stages, as the most efficient way for unstructured or semi-structured qualitative data (familiarisation, identification of a thematic framework, indexing, charting, mapping and interpretation) . This method has been used in research into hospitality and tourism (e.g. Busby and O'Neill, 2013). Using framework analysis, three themes were identified: (1) primary determinants of employee autonomous motivation for working in IHCs (2) primary determinants of employee job performance (3) primary determinants of employee job satisfaction.

6.5 Stage two of research process

6.5.1 Research purpose

Based on the outcome of Stage One of the research process, the theoretical model was updated. To test and assess the theoretical model and hypotheses, a quantitative method was adopted as the primary research method of this study. According to quantitative research, the study met Aim Two, which was to assess the relationships among employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at IHCs in China.

6.5.2 Research strategy

From the range of research strategies, a survey strategy is related to deductive research and is employed to collect quantitative data (Saunders et al., 2016). Collis and Hussey

(2014, p. 62) explain that “a survey methodology is used to collect primary or secondary data from a sample, with a view to analysing the data statistically and generalizing the results to a population”. In the field of hospitality and tourism, survey is the prevalent research strategy (Finn et al., 2000). Of the 60 the reviewed articles in Chapter Four, 55 employ a survey strategy, which indicates that using of a survey is a highly viable research strategy for the investigation of employee motivation in the hotel industry.

There are two types of survey: descriptive and analytical (Gray, 2009). According to Collis and Hussey (2014), a descriptive survey is used to develop accurate information on a phenomenon, while an analytical survey requires the researcher to develop a conceptual framework through literature review, then to calculate the relationship between dependent and independent variables. In view of the study’s structure, the analytical survey is the most appropriate type. Czaja and Blair (2005) propose five stages of survey development: design, pilot survey, amended design, data collection and coding, analysis, and report. This five-stage process guides the survey process.

6.5.3 Research design

(1) Online questionnaire

The most frequent method of conducting a survey is the use of questionnaires, which require respondents to answer standardised questions; these can be specifically divided into: postal, delivery and collection, online, structured interview, focus group interview, and telephone interview (Gray, 2009). Questionnaires may be self-completed or interviewer-completed (Saunders et al., 2016).

Self-completed questionnaires are completed by respondents themselves, which is appropriate for online, postal, and delivery and collection versions (Saunders et al., 2016). In contrast, structured interviews, focus group interviews and telephone interviews require the researcher to conduct them (Gray, 2009). An online questionnaire for self-completion by participants was adopted as the data collection method of this study. Hung and Law (2011) systematically reviewed online questionnaires in hospitality and tourism journals, pointing out that online questionnaires used in research in this sector needed to be more searching. Use of an online questionnaire for this study contributes to research into the use of online questionnaire-based research in the hospitality and tourism sector. Hung and Law (2011) report low cost and fast response time as the top two advantages of this research method in their reviewed articles. In the study, respondents were employees of IHCs operational in China where population is very large, while the author was based in the UK. The fact that respondents were in China, meant that distance was a challenge. For this study, an online questionnaire therefore saved both cost and time.

However, low response rates are a serious potential disadvantage of online questionnaires, highlighted by Hung and Law (2011) and Collis and Hussey (2014). Hung and Law (2011) demonstrated that the response rate to online questionnaires is below 30% in the majority of research studies. Al-Sabi et al. (2017) conducted a survey on foreign training in IHCs in Jordan; they used the delivery and collection method as opposed to the online method due to the low response rate to online questionnaires. In order to enhance the response rate, the author drew on the suggestion of incentives by Anseel et al. (2010) and Liu and Wang (2013): each respondent was allowed to open an online red packet, in which 5-10 renminbi (UK£0.55-1.11) were included, after completing and submitting the questionnaire.

(2) Sampling

Target population

Sample was the part of the population chosen for this research, as a subset of the entire population (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Involvement of the whole population was unrealistic, and the author's budget and time were limited, therefore sampling was appropriate and achievable for the research (Saunders et al., 2016). Barnett (2002) held that sampling rendered the survey more accurate than census. Sample selection was used within the population which was defined in view of the research questions, aims, and objectives; the redefined population, described as the target population, facilitated the research process (Saunders et al., 2016). The study aimed to investigate employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at IHCs in China, therefore 'population' was defined as employees of IHCs in China.

As previously explained, the majority of branches of IHCs are distributed in the Eastern region of China, but investment by IHCs in Central and Western regions has rapidly increased in the recent years, due to the implementation of supportive policies and economic development (Zhang et al., 2012). As a result, the target population was participants from Eastern, Central, and Western cities in China.

Initial target cities

Initially, the study selected three target cities from the Eastern region: Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou. Beijing, the Chinese capital as well as the national central city, was given a mission by the State Council in 2011 to establish itself as a world-class city. Shanghai is the largest city in China, and its economic centre (State Council, 2009). Shenzhen, a

Chinese special economic zone, was ranked first in the ‘Competitiveness Index of Integrated Economy 2015’ published by the Chinese Academy of Sciences (China Social Sciences Network, 2016). Due to strong economic power and supportive government policies in Beijing, Shanghai, and Shenzhen, many IHCs have established a large number of branches in the three cities (CNTA, 2016; Zhang et al., 2012). Beijing and Shanghai are two of the four Chinese municipalities (The Central People’s Government of the People’s Republic of China, 1999). In China, the term ‘municipality’ denotes a city which is directly administered by central government rather than the Province, and its political status is equivalent to that of a province (The Central People’s Government of the People’s Republic of China, 2009).

Three cities from the Central and Western regions were initially selected for this study: Chongqing, Xi’an, and Taiyuan. Chongqing, the youngest Chinese municipality as well as the central city of China’s Western Development, has experienced rapid economic development in recent years (Chongqing Municipal People’s Government, 2017); for example, the GDP growth rate in 2015 and 2016 ranked first in China (China, 2017). The number of 4- and 5-star hotels rose from 31 in 2005 to 82 in 2015, an increase of 62.2% in ten years (Chongqing Municipal Government, 2017). Chongqing is the author’s hometown, therefore strong levels of social networking have evolved. Xi’an, the capital of China’s Shaanxi province, is a central city in the Western region and is the core zone of ‘One Belt One Road’ (Shaanxi Provincial Government, 2019). Xi’an is also one of the best-known tourist cities in China, and many international hotels have chosen locations in this city (Xi’an Municipal Government, 2018; Zhang et al., 2012). Taiyuan, the capital of Shanxi province, is a well-known tourist destination, occupying a significant position in the Central region (The People’s Government of Shanxi Province, 2019).

Sampling strategy

Sampling was specifically divided into two categories: probability and non-probability sampling (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Probability sampling requires the chance of being selected from the target population to be known and normally equivalent, while non-probability sampling requires the chance of being selected from the target population to be unknown (Finn et al., 2000). The online questionnaire method was employed, which prevented the author from controlling the number of employees who completed the questionnaire (Hung and Law, 2011). This meant that chance of selection for of each employee was unknown, and enabled the author to use non-probability sampling.

According to Saunders et al., (2016), four types of non-probability sampling are: quota, purposive, volunteer, and haphazard, as presented in Table 6.4. Gray (2009) viewed respondents as constituting volunteer sampling when an online questionnaire method is adopted. In this study, respondents received the questionnaire link from the Internet, therefore they were free to decide whether they completed it, and the researcher did not ask them to complete it in their presence. Volunteer sampling was specifically divided into ‘snowball’ and self-selection sampling (Saunders et al., 2016).

Self-selection sampling took place, in which each participant case freely decided whether they wished to take part (Saunders et al., 2016). ‘Snowball sampling’ allows selected participants to ask new individuals to take part in the research, after which the new respondents invited further participants until the required sample size was achieved (Bryman, 2016). This study collected data from three different regions, and had a total of seven constructs, therefore the necessary sample size was large (Sarstedt et al., 2014). However, social networking opportunities for the researcher were limited, therefore, snowball sampling was undertaken for completion of the data collection.

For the study, the author sent the online questionnaire link to the selected participants who were employees of IHCs in the target cities and were willing to take part in this research. Certain participants asked their colleagues to join this research, which prompted these colleagues to ask more individuals to join. Due to the snowball sampling adopted, some respondents are from cities which were not the original target ones for the study. Because a larger sample size was required for this study, its participants ultimately came from a variety of cities which were from the four economic regions of China.

Table 6.4: Types of non-probability of sampling

Type	Definition	Applicable research
Quota	Stratified sample without random	Does not need sample frame, and collects data rapidly
Purposive	Cases are selected by researcher's judgement in accordance with research questions, aims, and objectives	Mix-methods, and for special, heterogeneous, homogenous, important, representative, and theoretical cases
Volunteer	Participants decide whether to participate in the research	Identifying and accessing participants may be difficult
Haphazard	Sample selected with few principles	Easy access

Source: Adapted from Saunders et al. (2016)

(3) Development of questionnaire

Based on the study's research aims, objectives, literature review, interviews and theoretical model, the questionnaire was designed, which was made up by Four sections. The first Section concerned profile of respondents, including their gender, nationality, working city, education, department, position level, and years of work experience. The sections Two, Three and Four formed the core of the questionnaire, in which all constructs of the theoretical model were included (personality, learning goal orientation, transformational leadership, employee job performance, employee job satisfaction, and supervisor-subordinate guanxi). To encourage employees willing to complete the

questionnaire, the questionnaire design conformed to 11 significant rules, as proposed by Bryman and Bell (2011); these are shown in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: Rules for questionnaire design

Item	Content
1	Avoid ambiguous terms (such as ‘often’ or ‘regularly’ used to establish frequency)
2	Long questions should be avoided
3	Double-barrelled questions should be avoided
4	Avoid very general questions (e.g. ‘how satisfied are you with your job?’)
5	Leading questions should not be used
6	Questions eliciting two answers are not appropriate
7	Negatives (e.g. ‘not’) should not form part of questions
8	Use simple and plain words rather than technical language
9	Consider whether respondents have the necessary knowledge to answer questions
10	Confirm that a closed question and its answers are symmetric
11	Confirm that answers for a closed question are balanced
12	Do not depend on respondents’ precise recollections to answer questions
13	Consider whether it is appropriate to provide a ‘do not know’ or ‘no opinion’ option for closed questions

Source: Adapted from Bryman and Bell (2011)

The study’s questionnaire was originally developed in English, however, the participants were Chinese, therefore the questionnaire was translated into simplified Chinese. To guarantee that the language was consistent in its meaning, a back-translation method designed by Brislin (1976) was adopted. In other words, the questionnaire in Chinese was re-translated into English. The final version of the questionnaire was bilingual. The author also clarifies the validity and reliability of the questions posed later in this Chapter. Four Sections of the questionnaire are considered in detail below:

Section One: Respondents’ profile

The questions regarding respondents’ demographic profile included gender, education, city of current employment, name of the current hotel chain you work, department, position classification, and lengths of service in years. The purpose of this Section in the

questionnaire was to test and assess the quality of quantitative data and the influences of the respondents' demographic profiles on their levels of employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction.

Section Two: Employee autonomous motivation and influential factors

The factors influencing employee autonomous motivation were: personality, learning goal orientation and transformational leadership, which were regarded as antecedents for the theoretical model. Employee autonomous motivation were considered as the processes between antecedents and outcomes in the study's theoretical model, therefore a single indicator had predictive validity to measure this construct (Diamantopoulos et al., 2012). The single indicator of employee autonomous motivation was phrased as 'I feel psychological self-determination to engage in work at the international hotel chain.' (Dermody et al., 2004; Liu and Arendt 2016; Roche and Haar, 2013; Wong and Li 2015; Xiong and King, 2015). All indicators were measured by a seven-point Likert scale, in which 1 means 'strongly disagree' and 7 means 'strongly agree'.

Referring to Harris and Fleming (2017) and Ghani et al. (2016), the study adopted the 'Big Five' model of personality analysis in order to identify indicators, phrased as 'I am very conscientious in the workplace', 'I have high emotional stability in the workplace', 'I am empathic with others in the workplace', 'I never feel shy with others in the workplace' and 'I like working with new ideas and possibilities'. A global indicator of personality was given for the analysis of the structural equation model. The next construct was learning goal orientation; its indicators were developed through the results of this study's interviews, referring to a key source from Button and Mathieu (1996). The final construct of this Section was transformational leadership; this was developed from the results of the study's qualitative research. Using this study's interview results and

referring to Carless et al., (2000) and Chang and Teng (2017), seven indicators were identified, specifically: ‘my superior communicates a clear and positive vision of the future’, ‘my superior treats me as an individual, and supports and inspires my development’, ‘my superior gives me inspiration and recognition’, ‘my superior fosters my involvement and engagement in the workplace’, ‘my superior inspires my thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions’, ‘my superior is clear about his/her values and practises what he/she preaches’, and ‘my superior inspires me with his/her positive personality’. All indicators were measured by a seven-point Likert scale, in which 1 means ‘strongly disagree’ and 7 means ‘strongly agree’.

Section Three: Employee job performance and satisfaction

Establishing employee job performance and satisfaction information were the aims of the study. Referring to Ling et al. (2017) and Wu et al. (2013), indicators of job performance were identified, phrased as: ‘my overall performance is good’, ‘my quality of work is good’, ‘my work output is high’, ‘my work efficiency rate is high’, ‘my ability is good’, ‘my task fulfilment is good’ and ‘my attendance rate is good’, ‘I can effectively cooperate with supervisors’, ‘I try to work harder’, ‘I want to do my work better’, ‘I find that I have done more than I expected to do’. In contrast, according to Chiang and Birtch (2010), Groch (2015), Yang (2010), and Zopiatis et al. (2014), the indicators of job satisfaction were stated as: ‘I feel satisfied with my current job’, ‘my work is interesting’, ‘I find real enjoyment in my work’, ‘I meet my goals for promotion’ and ‘I meet my goals for the development of new skills’. All indicators were measured by a seven-point Likert scale, in which 1 means ‘strongly disagree’ and 7 means ‘strongly agree’.

Section Four: Supervisor-subordinate guanxi

Supervisor-subordinate guanxi, also known as social interaction, played a mediating role between employee performance and job satisfaction. Referring to Yang and Lau (2015), five indicators of supervisor-subordinate guanxi were identified, phrased as: ‘I actively develop a positive guanxi with my superior’, ‘I will call or visit my superior after office hours or during holidays’, ‘I often share my thoughts and feelings with my supervisor’, ‘my superior often invites me for lunch/dinner’ and ‘I will send my superior gifts on special occasions’. There was a note that employee job performance also plays a mediating role. All indicators were measured by a seven-point Likert scale, in which 1 means ‘strongly disagree’ and 7 means ‘strongly agree’.

(4) Pilot testing

Bell and Waters (2014) indicate that a trial run was necessary to render a questionnaire valid and successful. Therefore, a pilot test which required respondents who were analogous to those who completed the questionnaire was undertaken (Saunders et al., 2016). Before pilot testing, the questionnaire was reviewed by experts to confirm the suitability of the questions (Chen and Huang, 2018). The researcher firstly sent the questionnaire’s draft to supervisors for feedback and refinement. It was then distributed by email to experts who were professionals in the field of hospitality and human resource management at the chosen Chinese institutions. The research aims and objectives were explained in the cover email. Experts in the Chinese institutions came from Sichuan International Studies University and Chongqing Technology and Business University. The author’s bachelor degree was obtained from Sichuan International Studies University, therefore some academics in the field of hospitality and human resource management were willing to review the questionnaire. Hospitality and human resource management

were two well-respected courses at Chongqing Technology and Business University, and some established contacts could be approached for involvement in this research. Minor changes were made before inputting the questions to Questionnaire Star, a popular Chinese online questionnaire programme. Because all respondents were in China, a Chinese online questionnaire programme offered easier and faster access.

The questionnaire link was sent to employees working in IHCs within China for pilot testing. Fink (2013) indicated that the quantity of pilot tests should be a minimum of ten. The researcher contacted 15 employees who had been interviewed for qualitative data collection. They completed the online questionnaire in March 2018, and their comments were submitted to the author for consideration of further improvement. Further changes were made in order to refine the questionnaire. Details of all changes and the final questionnaire are presented in Tables 6.6 and Table 6.7, respectively:

Table 6.6: Reviewers' comments and researcher's responses on the questionnaire

Type of reviewers	Details	Comments	Responses
The researcher's supervisors	Names of institution: The University of Plymouth	Expression of response to the question about employee autonomous motivation is not easy to be understood by respondents; some expression on personality was too academic.	The question on employee autonomous motivation was reworded Rewording of the questions about personality was completed so that they were easier for participants to understand.
Professionals in the Chinese institutions	Names of institutions: Sichuan International Studies University Chongqing Technology and Business University	Some indicators of learning goal orientation were repetitive and not accurate.	Two indicators were removed.
Employees working in IHCs within China	Names of IHCs: Holiday Inn Hilton Hyatt Regent Niccolo Westin	Superiors who support the enhancement of working efficiency were useful for guanxi development; there were too many questions on employee job performance, and some of them were repetitive.	One relevant indicator about guanxi was considered to be added; some indicators of job performance were removed.

Table 6.7: Constructs and indicators used in the questionnaire

Constructs	Indicators	Sources
Employee autonomous motivation (1-7 scale; 1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree)	I feel psychological self-determination to engage in work at the international hotel chain.	Dermody et al. (2004); Liu and Arendt (2016); Roche and Haar, 2013; Wong and Li (2015)
Employee personality (1-7 scale; 1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree)	(1) My personality motivates me to work in an international hotel chain; (2) I am very conscientious in the workplace; (3) I have high emotional stability in the workplace; (4) I am empathic with others in the workplace; (5) I never feel shy with others in the workplace; (6) I like working with new ideas and possibilities.	Harris and Fleming (2017); Ghani et al. (2016)
Learning goal orientation (1-7 scale; 1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree)	(1) I prefer to work on tasks which oblige me to learn new things; (2) The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me; (3) When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it; (4) I do my best when I am working on a fairly difficult task; (5) I try hard to improve on my past performance; (6) When I have difficulty in solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work; (7) I often actively learn new things rather than waiting for training to be provided by the hotel or department.	Button and Mathieu (1996)
Employee job performance (1-7 scale; 1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree)	(1) My overall performance is good (2) The quality of my work is good (3) My quantity of work is large (4) The efficiency of my work is high (5) My ability is good (6) My task fulfilment rate is good (7) My attendance rate is good	Ling et al. (2017); Wu et al. (2013)

Table 6.7 (Continued)

Employee job satisfaction (1-7 scale; 1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree)	(1) I feel satisfied with my present job; (2) My work is interesting; (3) I find real enjoyment in my work; (4) I meet my goals for promotion; (5) I meet my goals for the development of new skills	Yang (2010); Zopiatis et al. (2014); Chiang and Birtch (2010); Groch (2015)
Supervisor-subordinate guanxi (1-7 scale; 1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree)	(1) I actively develop a positive guanxi with my supervisor; (2) I will call or visit my supervisor after office hours or in holidays; (3) I often share my thoughts and feelings with my supervisor; (4) My supervisor often invites me for lunch/dinner; (5) I will send my supervisor gifts on special occasions; (6) My supervisor gives me support at work so that I can enhance working efficiency.	Yang and Lau (2015)
Transformational leadership (1-7 scale; 1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree)	(1) My supervisor communicates a clear and positive vision of the future; (2) My supervisor treats me as an individual, and supports and encourages my development; (3) My supervisor gives me inspiration and recognition; (4) My supervisor fosters my engagement and involvement in the workplace; (5) My supervisor inspires thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions; (6) My supervisor is clear about his/her values and practises what he/she preaches; (7) My supervisor inspires me by his/her personality charm.	Carless et al. (2000); Chang and Teng (2017)

6.5.4 Reliability and validity

Testing of the reliability and validity of the collected data is important, in order to confirm that measures in quantitative research have been developed appropriately (Brotherton, 2008). Although the jargon words ‘reliability’ and ‘validity’ appear to have similar meanings, they are very different in their measuring and evaluation mechanisms, and require separate discussion (Bryman, 2016).

(1) Reliability

Reliability considers measures’ consistency (Howell, 2013); specifically, the question of whether the questionnaire could deliver consistent findings at different times and under different conditions (e.g. different samples) was considered, to evaluate its reliability (Saunders et al., 2016). According to Mitchell (1996), reliability is normally assessed in three key stages, including test re-test, internal reliability and inter-rater reliability, as shown in Table 6.8:

Table 6.8: Forms to assess reliability

Form	Explanation
Test re-test	This procedure is described as follows: ‘estimates of reliability are obtained by correlating data collected with those from the same questionnaire collected under as near equivalent conditions as possible’.
Internal consistency	This ‘involves correlating the responses to questions in the questionnaire with each other. It thus measures the consistency of responses across a subgroup of the questions.’
Alternative form	This ‘offers some sense of the reliability of a questionnaire through comparing responses to alternative forms of the same question or groups of questions’.

Source: Saunders et al. (2016, p. 451)

Based on the design of the research, internal consistency was selected as the most appropriate method of testing the reliability of the research, along with Cronbach’s alpha,

a prevalently-used test for internal consistency calculated by averaging all split-half reliability values (Bryman, 2016). A value of Cronbach's alpha, which varied between 0 (no internal consistency) and 1 (perfect internal consistency), being closer to 1 indicated the greater internal consistency (Brotherton, 2008). It is generally necessary required to have an alpha value of a minimum of 0.70 (Saunders et al., 2016).

To test the questionnaire's internal consistency, IBM SPSS 24 was used to calculate values of Cronbach's alpha from pilot testing. The values of Cronbach's alpha from all constructs used in the structural equation model were greater than 0.70 (as shown in Table 6.9), which indicates that all questions for each construct are consistent for the measurement of this construct. Therefore, the questionnaire's reliability is verified.

Table 6.9: Cronbach's alpha of constructs

Construct	Cronbach's alpha
Personality	0.893
Learning goal orientation	0.793
Employee autonomous motivation	1.000
Employee job performance	0.926
Employee job satisfaction	0.915
Supervisor-subordinate guanxi	0.897
Transformational leadership	0.972

(2) Validity

Validity is concerned with the issue of whether an indicator, or a set of indicators, designed to explain a concept ultimately succeeds in measuring this concept (Bryman, 2016). According to Saunders et al. (2016), validity is generally assessed by establishment of internal validity, content validity, criterion-related validity and construct validity; the relevant explanations are presented in Table 6.10:

Table 6.10: Forms to assess validity

Form	Explanation
Internal validity	This ‘refers to the ability of your questionnaire to measure what you intend it to measure’.
Content validity	This ‘refers to the extent to which the measurement device, in our case the questions in the questionnaire, provides adequate coverage of the investigate questions’.
Criterion-related validity	This ‘is concerned with the ability of the measures (questions) to make accurate predictions’.
Construct validity	This ‘refers to the extent to which a set of questions (known individually as scale items) actually measures the presence of the construct you intended them to measure’.

Source: Saunders et al. (2016, p. 450-451)

The previous Sections had verified internal validity and content validity. All questions of the questionnaire were formulated through literature review (see Table 6.6). A draft of the questionnaire was sent to supervisors and experts for comments and refinement. After the pilot testing, the some further minor changes were made to the questionnaire. Therefore, the questionnaire’s ability to provide appropriate questions to inform the researcher’s findings was confirmed.

To confirm construct validity, testing corrected item-total corrections were required (Bryman, 2016). A common rule was that corrected item-total corrections should be more than 0.30 (Everitt and Skrondal, 2010). Corrected item-total corrections in the pilot testing were above 0.30, which demonstrated that no indicator was discarded. Thus, construct validity was achieved by the questionnaire. With the confirmation of its reliability and validity, the questionnaire was finalised.

6.5.5 Data collection

A total of 402 questionnaires were collected from June 2018 to September 2018, with 95 of them removed. The rationale for the deletion of 95 responses was that these respondents came from Chinese domestic hotels, or their questionnaires were carelessly

completed. Finally, 307 questionnaires were used for data analysis by partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). According to Hair et al., (2011, p. 144), Kock and Hadaya (2018, p. 232) and Peng and Lai (2012, p. 469), “PLS-SEM minimum sample size should be equal to the larger of the following: ten times the largest number of formative indicators used to measure one construct or ten times the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular latent construct in the structural model”. In this study, there were two formative constructs: personality and learning goal orientation. The study had two formative constructs. Personality had six indicators, while learning goal orientation was measured by seven indicators, so the minimum sample size for the research was 70. Due to 307 valid responses collected, this study met the requirement of minimum sample size for data analysis by PLS-SEM.

Data was collected from 30 cities, which were located in China’s four economic regions. According to the National Bureau of Statistics of China (2011), Chinese economic regions are divided into Eastern, Western, Central and Northeastern. The respondents in this study came from 42 different IHCs, and were from 17 international hotel groups. The results of the demographic profiles are presented on Table 6.11, Table 6.12 and Table 6.13:

Table 6.11: Demographic profiles of respondents

Variable	Group	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	111	36.2
	Female	196	63.8
Education	Diploma or below	115	37.5
	Bachelor degree	173	56.4
	Master or above	19	6.2
Economic regions of current employment	East	131	42.7
	West	172	56.0
	Central	2	0.7
	Northeast	2	0.7
Department	Housekeeping	35	11.4
	Food & Beverage	70	22.8
	Sales & Marketing	46	15.0
	Human resource	41	13.4
	Front office	88	28.7
	Finance	9	2.9
	General manager office	9	2.9
	Other	9	2.9
Position classification	Non-supervisory employee	169	55.0
	Supervisor	52	16.9
	Department manager	53	17.3
	Director	12	3.9
	General manager	4	1.3
	Other	17	5.5
lengths of service in years in international hotel chains	Less than 1 year	76	24.8
	1-3 years	119	38.8
	4-10 years	91	29.6
	More than 10 years	21	6.8

Table 6.12: International hotel chains

Hotel chain	Frequency	Percent		Hotel chain	Frequency	Percent
Regent	36	11.7		Days Inn	32	10.4
Holiday Inn	30	9.8		Hilton	22	7.2
Wyndham	19	6.2		Marriott	17	5.5
Sheraton	14	4.6		Shangri-La	14	4.6
Meliá	12	3.9		InterContinental	11	3.6
W	11	3.6		Angsana	5	1.6
Hampton by Hilton	5	1.6		Holiday Inn express	5	1.6
Hyatt	5	1.6		Ritz-Carlton	5	1.6
Sofitel	5	1.6		JW Marriott	4	1.3
Kayumanis	4	1.3		Kempinski	4	1.3
Mandarin Oriental	4	1.3		Le Meridien	3	1.0
Niccolo	3	1.0		Westin	3	1.0
Conrad	2	0.7		Four Seasons	2	0.7
Marco Polo	2	0.7		Radisson Blu	2	0.7
Renaissance	2	0.7		Rosewood	2	0.7
St. Regis	2	0.7		Andaz	1	0.3
Auwi	1	0.3		Banyan Tree	1	0.3
Courtyard	1	0.3		Double Tree	1	0.3
Fairmont	1	0.3		Grand Hyatt	1	0.3
Hotel Nikko	1	0.3		Howard Johnson	1	0.3
Kyriad	1	0.3		Pullman	1	0.3
Others	9	2.9				

Table 6.12: International hotel groups

International hotel groups	Frequency	Percent
InterContinental Hotels Group	83	27.0
Marriott International	61	19.9
Wyndham Hotel Group	52	16.9
Hilton Worldwide	30	9.8
Shangri-La Hotels & Resorts	14	4.3
AccorHotels	13	4.2
Meliá Hotels International	12	3.9
Hyatt Hotels Corporation	7	2.3
Marco Polo Hotels	5	1.6
Kayumanis	4	1.3
Kempinski Hotels	4	1.3
Mandarin Oriental Hotel Group	4	1.3
Jin Jiang International	3	1.0
Four Seasons Hotels & Resorts	2	0.7
Rosewood Hotels & Resorts	2	0.7
Auwi	1	0.3
Nikko Hotels Company	1	0.3
Other	9	2.9

6.5.6 Data analysis

(1) Statistics package for the social science (SPSS)

SPSS is one of the most widely-used software programmes for statistical analysis in social science research (Bryman and Teevan, 2005; Finn et al., 2000). In this study, SPSS Statistics 24.0 was used for demographic profile analysis. According to demographic profile analysis, the quality of the data was endorsed. Based on the results of the demographic profiles, the influences of these on employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction as the first objective of Aim Two were addressed by running independent samples t-test or one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

(2) Structural equation modelling

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is an important analysis method which allows researchers to assume causal relationships using relevant theories and concepts, and to simultaneously assess all of the relationships between constructs (Sarstedt et al., 2014). To address the second objective (assessing the direct relationships between constructs in the theoretical model) and the third objective (assessing the mediating effects in the theoretical model) of Aim Two, SEM was used. PLS-SEM and covariance-based structural equation modelling (CB-SEM) are the two primary approaches to SEM (Hair et al., 2012; Klarner et al., 2013; Wong, 2013). However, Chin (2010) indicates that it is normally necessary to explain the reasons why the study employs PLS-SEM rather than CB-SEM, which is the more prevalent approach.

Hair et al., (2014) indicate that PLS-SEM is more suited to research with a small sample size and formative constructs. Normally, the structural model, with no fewer than five

constructs, requires a considerable amount of data for the production of valid analysis (Sarstedt et al., 2014). In this study there are seven constructs, therefore this high quantity of data was necessary. However, the study collected data from IHCs in China rather than the whole hotel industry in China, and the researcher's resources in IHCs were limited, with the result that the sample size collected was limited. As explained in the Section on data collection, there were only 307 valid responses for data analysis, however the requirement of minimum sample size of PLS-SEM was met.

Further, PLS-SEM allows the flexible inclusion of both reflective and formative measures, and it removes the identification issues which normally occur when CB-SEM is employed (Hair et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2014). To accurately identify the relationships between indicators and constructs, the structural model of this study is made up of two formative constructs (personality and learning goal orientation) and five reflective constructs (transformational leadership, employee autonomous motivation, employee job performance, satisfaction, and supervisor-subordinate guanxi).

Assessment of PLS-SEM results consists of two stages: the first stage is to test measurement models (including both formative and reflective measurement models); the second stage is to assess the structural model (Chin, 2010). When the measurement models meet the requirements, research qualifies to move forward to the second stage (Sarstedt et al., 2014). In summary, PLS-SEM is appropriately applied in this study, and the software programme SmartPLS 3.2.7 was used to assess measurement and structural models.

6.6 Ethical considerations

Research ethics should be considered, as the researcher collected and reported the information about individuals (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Finn et al., 2000). Before conducting qualitative and quantitative research, the researcher was required to confirm that the research followed the requirements of the ethical protocol of University of Plymouth. Therefore, the two applications for the ethical approval of this research were submitted to the Faculty Research Ethics Committee of Business Faculty at the University of Plymouth in July 2017 and April 2018. The first application was for qualitative research (interview), and the second was for quantitative research (questionnaire). They were approved in August 2017 and June 2018 respectively (presented in Appendices A and F).

Diener and Crandall (1978) identified four ethical principles (no absence of informed consent, no invasion of privacy, no deception involved, and no harm to participants) which were important in the research process. Firstly, referring to Bryman (2016) and Finn et al., (2000), an informed consent form was formulated. This included the researcher's role in the research, the research's aims and objectives, the participants in the study, how to participate this research, deadline for completion, the right to withdraw, confidentiality and how the information that respondents provided would be processed. Prior to conducting interviews, each respondent was sent an informed consent form. If respondents agreed to participate, they would sign to confirm their willingness to participate. Similarly, respondents who completed the questionnaire needed to click an 'I agree' button before they could start to complete the questionnaire. Informed consent was therefore guaranteed.

Secondly, on the matter of privacy, the researcher was required to focus on the anonymity and confidentiality of respondents (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The informed consent form indicated that respondents were able to withdraw at any time without giving a reason, and their names and personal information were not identified in the research.

Thirdly, the research's purpose, aims, and objectives stated on the informed consent form were the same as those of the PhD Thesis. The questions on interviews and questionnaires were also attached as appendices. There was therefore no deception of respondents.

Fourthly, no harm to participants during the research was ensured. Harm to research participants may include physical harm, harm to participants' development and/or self-esteem, stress, and/or detrimental behaviours towards participants (Bryman, 2016). The locations where interviews were conducted were decided by respondents. During the interviews, the researcher's tone was agreeable, and all respondents were completely free to decide whether they were willing to answer the questions posed by the researcher. Additionally, online questionnaires were used so that all respondents could freely decide whether they wished to complete the questionnaire. The pilot testing also ensured that no questions were on the questionnaire which respondents might find sensitive or embarrassing.

6.7 Conclusion

In conclusion, this Chapter explains the research methodology used in this study. Based on the philosophical position of the author, post-positivism was used as the paradigm of inquiry, which led to the selection of mixed methods for the research. Semi-structured interviewing, used as a supporting process, was conducted in Chongqing, China. This contributed to the update of the theoretical model and guided the questionnaire design.

Online questionnaire completion was the main research method used in the study. According to literature review, the comments of supervisors and experts, implications arising from the pilot testing, and the confirmation of reliability and validity contributed to the finalisation of the questionnaire. Data populating the online questionnaire came from the four economic regions of China, and it was analysed through SPSS 24.0 and Smart PLS 3.2.7. Both qualitative and quantitative research were given ethical approval. The following Chapter presents details of how the study's theoretical model was updated through qualitative research.

Chapter 7 In-depth insights into employee motivation, job performance, and satisfaction

7.1 Introduction

The initial theoretical model has been proposed in Chapter 5, and Chapter 6 shows that this model was updated through qualitative research. Qualitative research provides practical support for the theoretical model and renders the model more credible (Bryman, 2016; Finn et al., 2000; Saunders et al., 2016). This Chapter presents the results of qualitative data and discussion of key findings in relation to previous literature. The theoretical model is updated through in-depth insights, which are based on identified and discussed determinants of employee motivation, job performance, and satisfaction, communicated during semi-structured interviews. This is the final step to meeting the aim of proposing the theoretical model of the relationships between employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at IHCs in China. It is noted that the author adopted the framework analysis proposed by Ritchie and Spencer (1994) to analyse and explain the study's data. According to this framework analysis, three themes were identified: (1) Primary determinants of employee motivation for working in IHCs (2) Primary determinants of employee job performance (3) Primary determinants of employee job satisfaction.

This Chapter consists of five Sections. Section One provides the respondents' profiles. Section Two presents the results of determinants of employee motivation to work in IHCs and relevant discussion. Sections Three and Four respectively identify principal factors which influence employee performance and job satisfaction, and discuss key findings in relation to previous literature. Section Five synthesises the data and gives deeper insights into the research questions in order to update the theoretical model.

7.2 Profiles of the respondents

Respondents' profiles are presented in Table 7.1. A total of 31 interviews were completed, with staff from seven different international hotel groups in Chongqing, China. Among the 31 interviewees, there were twelve non-supervisory staff (numbered E1-E12), nine supervisors (numbered S1-S9), seven managers (numbered M1-M7), and three directors (numbered D1-D3).

Among the 31 respondents, there were 22 females (71.0%) and nine males (29.0%). This result is consistent with the nationally-collected data which shows that there are more female staff working in the Chinese hotel industry than male (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2018). Non-supervisory employees were the highest proportion (n=12), followed by supervisors (n=9) and department managers (n=7). Only three directors participated in this research. This is consistent with the fact that there are typically fewer senior than subordinate staff in a hotel chain. In relation to the international hotel groups where respondents are employed, a total of 26 respondents (83.9%) were from Marriott International, Hilton Worldwide, InterContinental Hotels Group, and Hyatt Hotels Corporation. According to Tourism Review News (2017), the above hotel groups are the top ten leading hotel groups worldwide.

Table 7.1: Profiles of the interviewees

Number	Employee position	International hotel group	Gender
E1	Non-supervisor employee	Hyatt Hotels Corporation	Female
E2		Marriott International	Female
E3		Marco Polo Hotels	Female
E4		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female
E5		InterContinental Hotels Group	Male
E6		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female
E7		Marriott International	Female
E8		Marriott International	Male
E9		Marriott International	Male
E10		Hilton Worldwide	Female
E11		Hilton Worldwide	Female
E12		Hilton Worldwide	Female
S1	Supervisor	Hilton Worldwide	Female
S2		InterContinental Hotels Group	Male
S3		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female
S4		Hyatt Hotels Corporation	Female
S5		Marco Polo Hotels	Male
S6		Marco Polo Hotels	Male
S7		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female
S8		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female
S9		Marriott International	Male
M1	Manager	Hilton Worldwide	Male
M2		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female
M3		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female
M4		Kempinski Hotels	Male
M5		Marriott International	Female
M6		Marco Polo Hotels	Female
M7		Marriott International	Female
D1	Director	Hyatt Hotels Corporation	Female
D2		Hyatt Hotels Corporation	Female
D3		InterContinental Hotels Group	Female

7.3 Employee motivation

To identify the primary autonomous motivators, three main questions were developed, including: ‘What characteristics motivated you to seek work in IHCs?’ and ‘What primarily motivates you to work in IHCs?’ From responses to these main questions, a range of primary motivations were identified, including brand awareness, culture, career development, course orientation, justice, learning, recommendation by friends, standard management system and welfare. Table 7.2 presents determinants of employee

motivation identified through interviews. The results of the interview data indicate that standard management systems, career development and learning are the top three motivators.

Table 7.2: Determinants of employee motivation

Number	Determinants	Respondents	Frequency
1	Standard management system	E1, E4, E5, E6, E8, E9, E10, S1, S5, S6, S8, S7, S9, M1, M2, M3, M4, M5, M6, M7, D1, D2, D3,	23
2	Career development	E1, E2, E4, E5, E8, E11, S1, S5, S6 S8, S9, M1, M3, M4, M6, D1,	16
3	Learning	E4, E7, E9, E10, S6, S7, S9, M1, M2, M3, M4, M7, D1, D2	14
4	Course orientation	E1, E3, E6, E9, E10, S2, S4, M5, D3,	9
5	Brand awareness	E2, E4, E7, M4, M6	5
6	Justice	E7, E9, S1, S9	4
7	Welfare	S4, S9, M4, D1	4
8	Recommendation by friends	E12, S3, S7	3

7.3.1 Standard management system

Standard management systems mean that all IHCs from one hotel group share the same management system worldwide, which gives competitive advantage to an international hotel group and its affiliated hotel chains (Qu, 2015). Table 7.2 above shows that the standardisation of the management systems of IHCs was the most important factor which motivates staff to work in IHCs, as it is mentioned by 23 of 31 interviewees. The following quotes specifically explain the reason why standard management systems motivate employees to work at IHCs:

E1: “A standard management system was introduced by the headquarters. Under this management system, the hotel does not lay off employees at random, so it makes you feel secure in your job”.

E5: “Before I graduated, I had a three month internship experience in [name of international hotel]. The hotel’s management system taught me how professional operations in hotels were carried out, which cannot be taught by textbooks”.

S6: “Management systems in international hotels are more normative, and their standard operating procedure (SOP) is consistent whatever your job role”.

M2: “I did not have any views about international hotel chains before I started work for this hotel. However, I found many things were different after I started work here. Professionalisation in service and management made a strong impression on me”.

M3: “An international hotel has standard management systems ... I had only worked in a local hotel, but the management there was weak and it did not have a robust system”.

D1: “The biggest difference between international and local hotels was their management systems. International hotels’ management systems were more normative, which created a more straightforward working atmosphere”.

In summary, the above quotes show that employees were willing to put in high levels of effort and work harder under the standard management systems in IHCs. This resonated with the view of Li (2011), that an effective management system in a hotel is a desirable way to retain staff. The research of Dermody et al. (2004) reported that management systems in independent hotels were not identified as important factors for employee motivation, which was inconsistent with this study. However, management systems were linked to employee motivation at hotel chains in their research, which strengthened the view that employees who choose to work for hotel chains are primarily attracted by standardised management systems. The above findings highlight the fact that

management systems in international hotels are standardised in comparison to domestic hotels. This appears to be consistent with the research of Qu (2015) and Tian (2013), who compared the management systems of international hotels with those of domestic hotels. Their research underlined the fact that standard management systems created the competitive advantage of international hotels, and the management systems of domestic hotels were not normative.

Most of the senior level respondents (managers and directors) initially mentioned standard management systems when they were asked about their motivation to work for IHCs. However, a critical review of relevant literature found that little research accorded with this view. Some interviewees (e.g. M2, M3, and D1) with more senior positions had working experience in domestic hotels, so they were able to compare the differences between international and domestic hotels. Additionally, the fact that more senior staff normally had greater length of service at IHCs appeared to illustrate the fact that standard management systems are a major factor in staff retention at IHCs. For example, senior staff tend to achieve, or progress towards the achievement of, their career and learning goals the longer they work for IHCs. The study also found that some of interviewees (E8, S5, S9, M3, M4, and D1) mentioned standard management systems, because these contributed to career development and learning. As presented in Table 7.2, career development and learning ranked second and third as motivators. One of the key purposes of the following Section is to present relevant explanations of how standard management systems link to career development and learning.

7.3.2 Career development

Table 7.2 shows that more than half of the interviewees considered career development as a critical motivational factor for them to work for IHCs. As noted above, some of the

interviewees linked career development to the standard management systems in IHCs. The following quotes explain how the respondents felt that their career development linked to standard management systems:

E8: "Standard management systems in international hotels can create a comparatively fair platform for promotion".

S5: "International hotels' management is more normative, so employees have more opportunity for promotion. For example, when [name of an IHCs] opens a new branch, more opportunity will be given to existing staff".

S9: "Management systems in international hotels are more normative, focusing on human resource development. This is beneficial for individual career planning".

M3: "A robust management system can give you a knowledge of international hotels, so that your understanding of your role and career schemes is very clear".

M4: "Management in local hotels is less professional than international hotels, where your career development is supported".

These findings are consistent with those of Bu and Zhu (2015) and Li (2011), who reported that standard management systems provide greater and fairer opportunities for promotion, and gave employees a clearer timeframe for their careers. For example, employees of the Marriott hotel chain are able to participate in a Management Candidate Review after six months in their role; if they pass this review, they are able to communicate with their Head of Department on a face-to-face basis, and receive a letter of recognition which gives an opportunity for their promotion (Li, 2011). In addition to

standard management systems, the research findings show that various business arrangements, enrichment of work experience and the worldwide locations of hotel branches all contributed to employees' career development. The following quotes illustrated these points:

E2: "The work for international hotels is more varied than at local hotels, because their business range is more diverse. A variety of experience gives you better promotion opportunities".

E11: "Working for an international hotel can enrich your experience, which is beneficial for your career development".

D1: "Working for an IHC will offer you more promotion opportunities, because it has many branches worldwide. You may have an opportunity of promoting to the hotel group from the hotel chain. In contrast, if you work for a local hotel, such as [name of the hotel], your promotion opportunities are limited due to the lower number of nationwide branches".

These results are consistent with the findings of Liu and Arendt (2016), that availability of promotion opportunities is a key motivator for an employee to seek a job in the hotel industry; however these results are inconsistent with the research of Dermody et al. (2004), Dipietro et al. (2014) and Hekman and Lashley (2017), who did not identify career development as an important factor which motivates employees to work in the hotel industry. In particular, Hekman and Lashley (2017) demonstrated that career development was the least important motivating factor. However, the research of Dermody et al. (2004), Dipietro et al. (2014) and Hekman and Lashley (2017) focused on the hotel industry in general, whereas this study focuses solely on IHCs. It was shown

that employees working for IHCs were concerned with their career development. This study's findings resonate with Herzberg's two-factor theory, in which career development was considered as a motivating factor (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017).

7.3.3 Learning

Learning as an influential factor of employee motivation to work in IHCs ranked third (see Table 7.2). Training at work is classified as learning, as it contributes to the acquisition of new knowledge and skills (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). Similarly to career development, two employees (M3 and D1) linked standard management systems in IHCs with employees' learning. The following quotes relate to this theme:

M3: "An international hotel has a standard management system which enables you to comprehensively and systematically develop your knowledge, such as preparation for the opening of the business, taking an order and progressing to working in management".

D1: "In international hotels, the training system introduced by the hotel group is very normative, and it plays a critical role in learning and self-improvement".

These results are consistent with the findings of Bai (2018) and Li (2011) who indicate that standard management systems contributed to the establishment of a successful training system which develops employees' professional skills. In addition, the varied training content and personalised training plans of IHCs are also key employee motivators, as the following quotes illustrate:

S6: "Training for employees in management positions in international hotels is more comprehensive".

M2: “Before I started work in an international hotel, I had worked in a local hotel for four years. I supported the business expansion of this local hotel; however, I did not gain new knowledge because the training in the local hotel was very limited”.

M1: “Training in local hotels is very limited. In contrast, international hotels focus on staff training and how to develop their employees”.

M7: “For example., a manager at a department in [name of international hotel] is required to draw up a training plan for employees one month in advance. Staff at different levels accept training differently”.

Kalargyrou and Woods (2011) demonstrated the importance of diverse forms of training; when employees receive effective training, their professional skills and knowledge will be enhanced (Kalargyrou and Woods, 2011). Further, this study’s results accord with the conclusions of Arendt et al., (2014) and Liu and Arendt (2016), that development of professional skills and knowledge was the main employee motivator in the workplace. According to goal-setting theory, when employees are willing to acquire new knowledge, they can be effectively motivated in their work. As explained by participant M2, IHCs provide a desirable platform for employees’ learning, which was their principal workplace need. In this respect, the study’s findings resonate with goal-setting theory.

7.3.4 Pay

According to Chiang et al. (2005), Chiang and Jang (2008), Davidson et al. (2006), Pizam and Thornburg (2000), Qiu et al. (2015), Rowley and Rurcell (2001) and Yang (2014), low pay is a key focus for research in the hotel sector. However, the study’s results demonstrate that pay does not play a role in employee motivation for working in IHCs, because no respondent mentioned pay as an influential factor in employee motivation.

Further, some interviewees (E4, E5, E8, S5, S6, S8, M2, M3, M6 and D2) indicated that pay levels in local hotels were higher than those of international hotels. Some interviewees (E4, E8, S6 and M6) explained that they did not consider pay as motivation for working in IHCs, as they would choose local hotels in which to work, if pay were their priority. Employees of IHCs may focus on their personal development, as summarised by respondent S6:

S6: "To be honest, pay is not an important factor for employee motivation in the hotel industry. Instead, promotion opportunities and improvement of personal management skills are more important factors for staff working in international hotels".

This appears to contradict the argument of Breiter et al. (2002), Dermody et al. (2004) and Dipietro et al. (2014) that pay is the primary motivation for staff to choose to work in the hotel sector. There are additional motivation theories, such as expectancy theory and justice theory, which demonstrated the importance of pay for the effective motivation of employees in the workplace. In contrast, this study's results are consistent with motivation theories such as Herzberg's two-factor theory and goal-setting theory, in which pay is not considered as a motivator (Arnold et al., 2016). In Herzberg's two-factor theory, pay is only regarded as a hygiene factor (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). In goal-setting theory, employees can be effectively motivated by a challenging or learning goal. The former Section indicates that learning was a main influential factor for employee motivation, which resonated with learning goal setting.

Because the low pay levels in the hotel industry are a prevalent phenomenon, numerous researchers (e.g. Breiter et al., 2002; Dermody et al., 2004; Dipietro et al., 2014; Kuang, 2013; Qiu et al., 2015; Williams et al., 2008; Wu and Wang, 2008; Yang, 2014) consider pay as a key motivator. However, their research focuses on the whole hotel sector rather

than IHCs. As previously mentioned, standard management systems and learning and career development were the key needs of employees in the workplace. It also shows the differences provided by IHCs in China. Similarly, this study concludes that enhancement of employee job performance and satisfaction may not depend solely on pay levels in IHCs.

7.4 Determinants of employee job performance

In the process of identification of the determinants of employee job performance at IHCs in China, two main questions emerge, including: ‘Please indicate your overall level of job performance with your current employer/hotel’ and ‘What primary factors do you think are important for the enhancement of your job performance?’. Table 7.3 presents the main determinants of employee job performance, which were identified through interviews. Table 7.3, indicates that learning, leadership, and career development are ranked as the top three:

Table 7.3: Determinants of employee job performance

Number	Determinants	Participants	Frequency
1	Learning	E1, E2, E3, E4, E8, S1, S2, S3, S4, S6, S8, M1, M2, M3, M5, D2, D3,	17
2	Leadership	E1, E2, E3, E4, E7, S2, S1, S3, S7, S9, M1, M5, M7, D1, D2, D3,	16
3	Career development	E3, E5, E8, E11, S1, S2, S5, S6, S8, S9, M2, M3, M6, D3	14
4	Working atmosphere	E1, E2, E10, S1, S3, S5, M4, D3	8
5	Autonomy	E3, E4, E10, M5, M6	4
6	Emotion labour	E3, E12, S6,	3
7	Pay	E6, S5, M6,	3
8	Teamwork	E9, E11, D1,	3

7.4.1 Learning

Table 7.3 shows that 17 of the 31 interviewees indicated that learning was an important determinant of employee job performance. As noted above, ‘training’ is included in ‘learning’ (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). One interviewee who is an HR manager at an IHC summarises aspects which represented learning at work:

M1: “Learning is a top priority for the enhancement of employees’ job performance. Hotels have a responsibility to organise training in order to improve employees’ learning positivity, because employees who are self-motivated remain rare. Professional skills, learning & experience accumulation, feedback from others and formal training (such as induction training) represent 70%, 20%, and 10% respectively in total learning”.

The above quote illustrates the fact that professional skills, learning and experience accumulation, and feedback and formal training are three key aspects of learning. This resonates with Armstrong and Taylor (2017)’s study of how to learn. The following quotes further support this viewpoint (as presented on Table 7.4).

Table 7.4: Aspects of learning (employee job performance)

Aspects	Example quotes
Learning of professional skills and experience accumulation	<p>E3: <i>“Learning has a deep impact on the improvement of performance. Sometimes, when senior staff are asked a question which is not related to their business, I find that they are able to propose a quick solution. It is therefore necessary for me to be constantly learning”.</i></p> <p>E4: <i>“Learning is the process of the accumulation of work experience. It is critical to help me improve my job performance”.</i></p> <p>S4: <i>“I have worked in a hotel for two years, but I am still afraid when I am asked a question by customers as I go through the lobby. Because I work in the human resource department, I have little knowledge of our products and services. This is a normal phenomenon in the hotel sector. Most employees are only given information about their own departments. However, each employee needs to develop a comprehensive knowledge of the hotel, which in turn improves the individual’s and hotel’s performance”.</i></p> <p>M2: <i>“When working in an IHC, you cannot focus only on the knowledge needed for your specific job. Instead, each employee needs to do their best to gain new and broader knowledge of the hotel industry”.</i></p>
Feedback	E2: <i>“Setting learning goals is useful for performance improvement. Also, in my office, each colleague shares what he or she is doing and how to deal with working issues every day, so everyone can learn a variety of work skills.”</i>
Formal training	<p>E8: <i>“Because our hotel has many foreign customers, English language training is given to each department in order to improve service quality.”</i></p> <p>S9: <i>“Primarily it is about training... our department gives more training than the HR department. It is beneficial for us to develop the professional abilities needed for our work.”</i></p>

Table 7.4 presents aspects of learning with relevant quotes, and also demonstrates the importance of each aspect of learning for the improvement of job performance as a rationale for employees to learn. The findings resonate with the research of Davidson et al., (2011) and Rowley and Purcell (2001), who emphasise that training is essential in order to maintain employees’ service standards and improve their job performance. The findings also support the view that feedback has an influence on employees’ job

performance (Locke and Latham, 2002). This study's findings are also consistent with the views of Kim and Lee (2013), that learning and/or the acquisition of more knowledge and skills play a crucial role in performance delivery.

However, a review of relevant literature (e.g. Huang and Xie, 2017; Li et al., 2012; Qin et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2013) did not identify learning as an important determinant of employee job performance in the Chinese hotel industry within the Southern and Eastern regions, in which hotel industry development is more advanced than within the Western region. Although the above participant quotes demonstrate that hotels providing training made a contribution to employees' learning and improvement of job performance, four interviewees (M5, S8, S3, and M7) felt that the training in their hotels was not useful. Instead, they believed that learning depended on employees themselves, as illustrated by the following two quotes:

M5: "I hardly attend training in the workplace, because I am normally too busy. Learning depends on yourself, and you need that awareness."

S8: "Leaders will see your potential, so you cannot passively absorb knowledge; instead, you need to actively learn more things. When you go to a department for work shift, training will be arranged for you. In fact, if you are willing to learn more things, you should actively come up with questions rather than passively receiving information."

The author did not therefore totally agree with the view proposed by Davidson et al. (2011) and Rowley and Purcell (2001), that training was essential for each employee. Instead, the findings showed that learning depends on employees themselves, which supports the view of Locke and Latham (2002) that willingness is regarded as a moderator for the

achievement of learning goals. In other words, learning is a useful determinant of job performance for employees who are willing to put in the effort to learn.

7.4.2 Leadership

Sixteen interviewees supported the view that leadership is a critical determinant of employee job performance. Data analysis shows that leadership in this study was divided into: criticism, communication, empowerment, guidance & inspiration, caring, leaders' personality to influence employees, and responsibility. Table 7.5 presents aspects of leadership with relevant quotes, and an explanation of the importance of leadership for the improvement of job performance:

Table 7.5: Aspects of leadership (employee job performance)

Aspects	Example quotes
Criticism	<i>M1: "‘Blind’ managers who do not evaluate employees or subordinates have a negative impact on employee job performance; instead, increasing the dialogue between managers and staff and recognising employees’ job performance are necessary".</i>
Communication	<i>E7: "In my opinion, leaders need to increase communication with their subordinates in order to understand subordinates’ needs with regard to their skills gap".</i>
Empowerment	<i>M5: "In my opinion, leaders empowering me is important for the enhancement of my job performance".</i> <i>E4: "I think that balancing the empowerment given to employees is very important. Leaders, cannot empower employees too much, and they should try to avoid limiting employees’ empowerment".</i>
Guidance and inspiring	<i>S7: "Leadership is the main factor which enhances my job performance, because leaders give me guidance and inspiration. For example, I had no experience when I started work in the Finance Department, but leaders told me what to do and gave me some valuable advice and inspiration for my job".</i>
Leaders’ personality	<i>My leader is able to tolerate subordinates to a large extent. E3</i> <i>E8: "The manager of our department is very modest, and he is a good role-model for me".</i>
Responsibility	<i>S3: "For leadership, I think that responsibility is the most important factor. As a leader, you cannot ‘pass the buck’ when you face a challenge".</i>

These findings resonate with Li et al., (2012), Ling et al., (2017), and Qin et al., (2014), who consider leadership as a critically influential factor of employee job performance. Even though each researcher analysed different aspects of leadership, the core function of leadership is to influence employees so that they are willing to do things which are consistent with organisational aims (Dixon, 1994). Similarly, in the study, each employee's view of leadership differed, but the impact of leadership was positively influential on their performance.

7.4.3 Career development

Table 7.3 shows that fourteen interviewees considered career development as a determinant of employee job performance. The findings' results reveal that career development was related to employees' promotion and career goals, as illustrated by the following example quotes:

S5: "In my opinion, the most influential factor is opportunity. Specifically, this considers whether an employee has promotion opportunities at this hotel".

D3: "I realised that I preferred to work within, rather than outside the office, so I needed promotion to a higher position which would be office-based. To achieve my goal, enhancement of my job performance was necessary".

These findings were consistent with the conclusion of Qiu et al., (2015), that employees' career development plans and goals normally involve aiming for promotion. Additionally, this study's results showed that IHCs have normative performance appraisal, which is related to employees' promotion opportunities. In order to achieve a good performance

appraisal and obtain promotion opportunities, employees need to deliver high levels of job performance. These quotes have supported this viewpoint.

S1: "We have annual employee performance appraisals. Employees' performance is appraised by the department manager, director or general manager. If an employee's appraisal level is excellent, leaders will consider them for promotion".

S6: "In our hotel, when a new employee starts their job, they will be given a development direction. The hotel will appraise the employee's performance at the end of the year. Their promotion opportunity will be decided by this appraisal".

The results were consistent with the research of Li (2011) which indicated that, at IHCs in China, employees' promotion opportunities were related to their performance appraisal. The research conducted by Li (2011), in the Marriott hotel chain was taken as an example: employees were required to participate in the Management Candidate Review which evaluated whether the employees had potential for promotion, according to their performance at work. However, some interviewees (S2, S5, S8, M2, M3, M4, M5, and M6) argued that supervisor-subordinate (Sr-Se) guanxi was a necessary component of promotion opportunity. Two of them gave explanations:

M3: "Even though you deliver a high standard of job performance, having a positive guanxi with leaders is necessary to increase promotion opportunities".

M5: "Our [senior colleague] was very young and did not strong capability in the workplace. I guessed that he/she had good networking contacts".

This is consistent with the argument of Mejia et al., (2018) and Yang and Lau (2015), that, in the Chinese environment, development of a positive Sr-Se guanxi is necessary for an employee's career development. Thus, employees cannot focus only on their personal performance in order to gain promotion opportunities at work; developing a positive Sr-Se guanxi was also crucial.

7.5 Determinants of employee job satisfaction

To identify the determinants of employee job satisfaction at IHCs in China, three main questions were posed, including: "Please indicate your overall level of job satisfaction with your current employer/hotel" and "What primary factors do you think are important to enhance your level of job satisfaction?" According to the interviewees, career development, desirable performance, interest, leadership, pay, social networking, welfare, working climate, and workload intensity were identified as the main determinants of employee job satisfaction (as presented in Table 7.6). Table 7.6 indicates that career development, leadership and welfare rank as the top three determinants of employee job satisfaction:

Table 7.6: Determinants of employee job satisfaction

Number	Determinants	Respondents	Frequency
1	Career development	E1, E2, E4, E7, E8, E10, S4, S5, S7, M1, M3, M5, M6	13
2	Leadership	E3, E4, E8, S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, M1, M7, D3,	11
3	Welfare	E1, E3, E5, E6, E11, M3, M5, S9, D2,	9
4	Pay	E1, E2, S1, S4, S7, S8, M1	7
5	Working climate	S3, S6, S7, S8, M3, M4,	6
6	Workload intensity	S8, S9, M6, D1,	4
7	Desirable performance	E9, E12, M1,	3
8	Interest	E1, M2, D3	3

7.5.1 Career development

Table 7.6 indicates that thirteen interviewees believed that career development was important for the enhancement of employee job satisfaction. The following quotes include each level of seniority, to consider a range of opinions on the relationship between career development and employee job satisfaction:

E4: "In my opinion, the most important determinant of my job satisfaction is that I can clearly see my career development within the hotel chain".

E6: "Career development is one of the most influential factors of my job satisfaction, because I prefer to see my workplace prospects clearly".

E7: "If I cannot see my career development path within the hotel chain, I will feel confused at work".

S1: "I have short-term and long-term career goals, which makes me willing to remain in my employment here ... my short-term career goal is to be promoted to department manager, while my long-term career goal is to become a marketing director".

S7: "Career development has an impact on the non-supervisory employees in our department. I work in a 'back-stage' department in which there are few promotion opportunities".

M1: "Career development is the second most important factor which influences employee job satisfaction".

These findings appear to resonate with Lu et al., (2016), who compared job satisfaction between non-supervisory staff and supervisors in the hotel industry. Their research indicated that career development was a critical determinant of job satisfaction for supervisors. However, their findings did not demonstrate that career development was an important determinant for non-supervisory employees. Instead, their study's findings filled this gap by concluding that non-supervisory and supervisory employees (supervisors, managers, and directors) considered career development as an important determinant of their job satisfaction level.

The above results were consistent with Qiu et al. (2015) who pointed out that achievement of career goals gave employees satisfaction at work. When employees do not achieve their career goals, they may leave their hotel, mainly because dissatisfaction at work negatively impacts on staff retention (Gu and Siu, 2009; Qiu et al., 2015). The study's findings also revealed that career development is closely related to promotion opportunity; if employees know that there is no promotion opportunity, their job satisfaction may be negatively influenced, and they might consider changing jobs. The following quotes illustrate this viewpoint:

S5: "Promotion opportunity is more important than pay for my workplace satisfaction".

M5: "If you want to gain promotion, changing jobs will be attractive because other hotels, especially domestic ones, prefer to recruit employees who have work experience in IHCs".

In the research conducted by Breiter et al. (2002) and Dipietro et al. (2014) Kovach's Ten Motivation Factors were used in order to explore employees' levels of job satisfaction. This analysis revealed that career development ranked only fourth and fifth, respectively. Their results had some inconsistency with this study, because in this study career

development ranked first as a determinant of employee job satisfaction. The findings of this study resonate with Herzberg's two-factor theory, which identifies career development as a satisfier (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). Herzberg's two-factor theory indicates that achievement of career development or promotion opportunity gives employees intrinsic satisfaction rather than preventing dissatisfaction (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017).

7.5.2 Leadership

Eleven interviewees responded that leadership was a critical determinant of employee job satisfaction. Analysis of this study's data demonstrates the importance of leadership being shown by giving care and recognition to staff (as presented in Table 7.7):

Table 7.7: Aspects of leadership (employee job satisfaction)

Aspects	Examples quotes
Caring	<p><i>E1: "It is very important that leaders care about employees and make them feel happy in the workplace".</i></p> <p><i>S2: "Leaders' caring attitudes play a critical role in my satisfaction at work".</i></p> <p><i>D3: "Leaders need to make employees feel happy in the workplace".</i></p>
Recognition	<p><i>E9: "Leaders' recognition of my work is much more important than pay. When I finish a task which attracts recognition from my managers, my mood is very positive".</i></p> <p><i>M1: "In my working experience as an HR manager, leaders' recognition of employees is the most important factor which enhances employees' job satisfaction and reduces the staff turnover rate".</i></p>

There was consistency between the researchers Duan et al. (2015), Hon and Lu (2010), and Wong and Li (2015), who reported that leadership is a determinant of employee job satisfaction. Their data was collected in the Central, Southern and Eastern regions of

China, respectively. This study collected data from the Western region, therefore it is suggested that leadership should be considered as a necessary determinant of employee job satisfaction in the Chinese hotel industry.

7.5.3 Pay and welfare

Although some interviewees (E1, E2, S1, S4, S7, S8, and M1) thought that pay was an influential factor for employee job satisfaction in the hotel industry, few of them considered it as a critical determinant for themselves. Further, several interviewees (E2, S1, M2, M4, and M7) argued that pay should not be related to the improvement of employees' job satisfaction. The following example quotes give opinions on why pay should not be a critical determinant of, or be related to, the improvement of employees' job satisfaction:

S1: "Before you take the position, you should know its pay scale".

S9: "Wage is not an important factor which influences my job satisfaction, because pay levels in international hotels are not advantageous compared to local hotels. What does give me satisfaction at work is a greater number of progression opportunities".

M2: "Although salary has an impact on my job satisfaction, it is not a significant factor. I pay more attention to whether I feel happy and motivated at work".

M7: "Pay is not a problem, because everyone would like a high level of remuneration".

These findings are inconsistent with the recommendations of Kuang (2013) and Wu and Wang (2008), that improvement of the organisation's salary system should be a priority for the enhancement of employee job satisfaction.

Partly because low pay is a prevalent feature of the hotel industry, numerous researchers (e.g. Dermody et al., 2004; Depietro et al., 2014; Kuang, 2013; Qiu et al., 2015; Williams et al., 2008; Wu and Wang, 2008; Yang, 2014) reported that pay contributes to employee job satisfaction improvement. However, in Herzberg's two-factor theory, pay is considered as a hygiene factor which prevents employees from feeling dissatisfied, rather than acting as a motivating factor which satisfies them (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). This study's results therefore appear to resonate with Herzberg's two-factor theory. While the study's results did not contradict the fact that pay levels have an impact on employees' work, the results indicate that the role of pay level in employees' job satisfaction should not be emphasised. Some researchers (e.g. Mohsin et al., 2013) were surprised that the results of their research indicated that pay levels cannot be regarded as a satisfier in the hotel industry, because their literature review showed the importance of good pay levels for employee motivation and satisfaction. Thus, this study supports their conclusions. This study also supports the research of Lundberg et al., (2009), which verified the fact that pay is a hygiene factor for staff in the hotel industry. However, their research was concentrated on seasonal employees, while this study involved staff in China. In terms of relevant research in China, pay levels linking to improvement of employee job satisfaction represent a high proportion of findings (e.g. Kuang, 2013; Qiu et al., 2015; Yang, 2014). Therefore, the author attempts to avoid overwhelming emphasis on pay in terms of employee work motivation and job satisfaction.

Due to the low pay levels in the worldwide hotel industry, increasing pay is a significant challenge for individual hotels. Nine interviewees described welfare as a determinant of

their job satisfaction. The following example quotes show that some IHCs provide good welfare measures for their staff, to keep them satisfied in their workplaces:

E6: “We have a food festival once a month, and our hotel often organises enjoyable social activities for staff”.

E1: “Our hotel provides free lunch and dinner every working day. Meals are healthy, delicious and of a high standard. For example, following the avian influenza outbreak, our hotel did not import poultry”.

M5: “When I worked in [name of an international hotel], I had eighteen days of annual leave, but I have only five days in my current hotel. Even though pay is low in the hotel industry, the longer annual leave we can have in some jobs would be a positive factor”.

Participant M5’s opinions suggest that the amount of annual leave IHC in China varies. Therefore, this study proposes that increasing the length of annual leave as a compensation for low pay levels in IHCs is a viable and realistic strategy to enhance staff job satisfaction. Further, annual leave as a determinant of employee satisfaction is rarely researched in published journal articles in the tourism and hospitality sector.

7.6 In-depth insights and updating the theoretical model

The results of the data analysis respectively identify the primary factors which influence employee motivation, job performance, and satisfaction. Data synthesis from the current study, based on existing literature, contributes to the development of an in-depth insight into employee motivation, performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China, to give practical support to the study’s theoretical model. Previous studies (e.g. Breiter et al.,

2002; Dipietro et al., 2014; Kim and Lee 2013; Locke and Latham, 2002; Lundberg et al., 2009) demonstrate that employee motivation can result in improvement of performance and job satisfaction. Therefore, employee motivation was initially analysed, followed by analysis of employee performance and job satisfaction. The in-depth insights were developed in five respects as follows:

Standard management systems, learning, and career development were identified as three highly-influential factors of employee motivation, while learning, leadership and career development are three principally influential factors of employee job performance in this study. It is shown that learning and career development are influential factors in employee motivation and job performance. As previously noted, this study's results show that standard management systems in IHCs contribute to employees' learning and career development. It is shown that IHCs' standard management systems also positively influence employee job performance. Employee job performance is therefore thought to be linked to employee motivation.

Career development, leadership and welfare emerge from the current research findings as the three principal determinants of employee job satisfaction. These findings resonate with employee motivation, because career development is a collective differentiator between employee motivation and job satisfaction. It appears to resonate with Herzberg's two-factor theory, in which career development or advancement is a motivator for satisfaction at work (Sledge et al., 2008). Standard management systems contribute to employees' career development. This indicates that employee motivation impacts positively on job satisfaction through standard management systems and career development.

The findings' results additionally identify that leadership is a highly-influential factor for both employee performance and job satisfaction. As the nature of work in the hotel industry is service-oriented and labour-intensive, improvement of both employees' performance and satisfaction are necessary for each IHC to retain competitive market advantage (Amissah et al., 2016). Interviewees mentioned these strategies as positive features for leadership behaviour: combining employee job performance with satisfaction, leaders' caring behaviours, evaluation, communication, empowerment, guidance & inspiration, personality, recognition, and responsibility. This resonates with transformational leadership. Transformational leadership requires leaders to inspire and instruct subordinates, setting them a good example, so that subordinates become loyal to leaders and are willing to work towards a collective aim (Arnold et al., 2016). In contrast, this result was inconsistent with transactional leadership in that leaders were reported as rewarding and motivating subordinates by observing and evaluating their staff's job performance (Arnold et al., 2016). Thus, transformational leadership is worthwhile for consideration as a research focus in terms of the relationships between employee motivation, performance and job satisfaction.

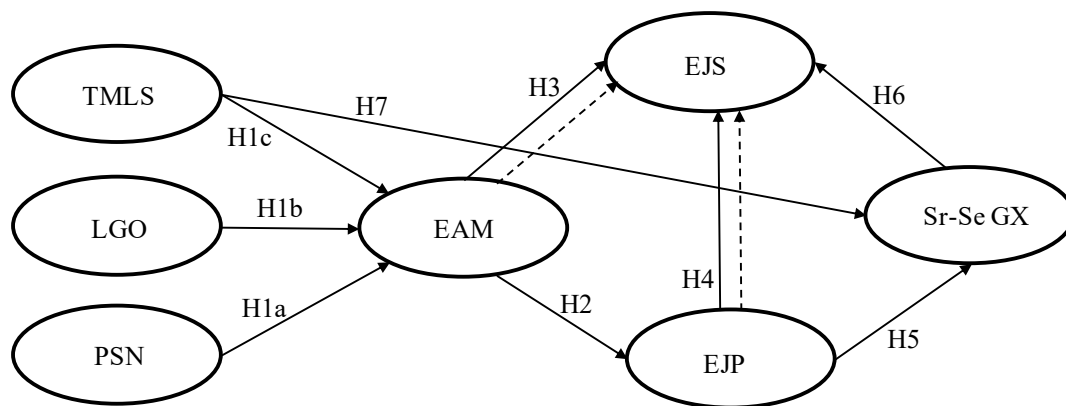
Pay levels cannot act as a motivator or satisfier, which is consistent with two-factor theory by Herzberg (1966), even though numerous researchers (e.g. Amissah et al., 2016; Breiter et al., 2002; Dermody et al., 2004; Dipietro et al., 2014; Kuang, 2013; Qiu et al., 2015; Wu and Wang, 2008; Yang, 2014) regard pay as a primary motivator of employee job satisfaction improvement in the hotel industry. While enhancement of pay levels is a challenge for IHCs, if an IHC concentrates on pay to support employee work motivation in IHCs and improvement of job satisfaction levels, employees' dissatisfaction may be avoided. Further, career development is regarded as intrinsic motivation in the concept of Herzberg's two factor theory (Sledge et al., 2008), and is linked with employee motivation, job performance, and satisfaction in the results of qualitative research,

therefore the study should take intrinsic motivation into account. However, as previously depicted, the differences between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic needs are in practice vague, and extrinsic motivation varies according to the degree of autonomy available, so internalising employees' external regulations and making them feel psychological autonomy at work are significant (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Gagné and Deci, 2005; Ryan and Deci, 2000). This supports the study's initial theoretical, in which employee autonomous motivation is considered as the process.

Employees are recommended to develop a positive Sr-Se guanxi in the workplace, because Sr-Se guanxi plays an important role in career development of all employees in Chinese society (Yang and Lau, 2015). Although IHCs are multinational corporations and Sr-Se guanxi may be not a cultural construct in their home countries, their branches operating in China are influenced by this feature of Chinese culture and environment. For employees of IHCs, it is not appropriate to see the delivery of high job performance as the most important predictor of career development in their multinational corporation. Instead, this study suggests that developing a positive Sr-Se guanxi is necessary for each employee, in order to support career development; equally, leaders or supervisory staff are the facilitators of Sr-Se guanxi (Han and Altman, 2009; Taormina and Gao, 2010). In this regard, transformational leadership behaviours may have a positive impact on the development of a positive Sr-Se guanxi.

In summary, the in-depth insights were developed based on qualitative research. They provide practical support for the study's theoretical model, which is tested by the quantitative research method (the main research method of this study). The in-depth insights demonstrate that learning and career development make employee motivation resonate with job performance and satisfaction. In the study's initial theoretical model, learning goal orientation is considered as an antecedent; in contrast, career development

is regarded as an indicator of employee job satisfaction, and guanxi as a driver of career development mediates the role of the relationship between employee job performance and satisfaction. Therefore, the in-depth insights appear to support the study's theoretical model. However, transformational leadership, as a critical determinant of both employee job performance and satisfaction and a key element of Sr-Se guanxi, is not included in the study's initial theoretical model. To increase validity of the theoretical model, transformational leadership was added as an antecedent. Figure 7.1 presents the updated theoretical model¹:



Note: —————> Represents the direct relationship
 - - - - -> Represents the indirect relationship via the mediator

Figure 7.1 Updated theoretical model

7.7 Conclusion

The purpose of this Chapter is to provide practical support for the study's theoretical model, and to meet the aim of proposing a theoretical model of the relationship between employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction. The qualitative data results present the principal determinants of employee motivation, job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China. Standard management systems, learning, and career development were three principally-influential factors of employee motivation at IHCs in China. The study also demonstrates that standard management systems are linked to learning and career development, and pay is not a motivator. Learning, leadership and

career development were three principal factors which influenced employee job performance. Sr-Se guanxi has a strong impact on employees' career development. Career development, leadership and welfare were three principal factors which influenced employee job satisfaction, and pay was not a satisfier. Because low pay is a prevalent phenomenon in the hotel sector, it is suggested that increasing annual leave (one type of welfare measure) as a compensation for low pay in IHCs is more viable and realistic for the enhancement of employee job satisfaction.

According to the synthesis of the study's data and the development of its in-depth insights, the author found that employee motivation resonated with employee job performance and satisfaction, and employee autonomous motivation as the process in the theoretical model is supported. Further, this study demonstrates that transformational leadership is related to both employee job performance and satisfaction, but was not used as a construct in the theoretical model. Thus, in the theoretical model, transformational leadership was considered as an antecedent. In conclusion, the study's theoretical model has been updated through qualitative data analysis. The following Chapter is the first step in addressing the second aim of the study.

Note: 1. TMLS is transformational leadership; LGO is learning goal orientation; PSN is personality; EAM is employee autonomous motivation; EJP is employee job performance; EJS is employee job satisfaction; Sr-Se GX is supervisor-subordinate guanxi.

Chapter 8 The influences of demographic profiles on employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction

8.1 Introduction

This Chapter presents the initial analysis of the quantitative data and begins to address Aim Two (to assess the structural relationships among employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at IHCs in China). This aim is divided into three objectives in order to achieve this. This Chapter aims to meet the first objective, which is to assess the influence of demographic profiles on employee autonomous motivation, job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China.

The relevant literature (Akgunduz, 2015; Curtis et al., 2009; Dipietro et al., 2014; Gallardo et al., 2010; Horng et al., 2016; Ling et al., 2017; Pan, 2015; Wei et al., 2012) indicates that assessment of the differences between the demographic groups in relation to employee autonomous motivation, overall job performance and satisfaction is a key method for analysing their influences, when this assessment is based on initial analysis of demographic profiles. Assessing the differences between demographic groups also contributes to filling the research gap previously identified by the author. Analysis of the findings in this Chapter uses SPSS 24.0.

This Chapter consists of four Sections. Section One presents the results of the respondents' demographic profiles. Sections Two, Three and Four respectively present the differences in employee autonomous motivation, job performance and satisfaction by demographic group, and discuss the key findings in view of the previous literature.

8.2 Profiles of the respondents

A total of 402 questionnaires were collected, but 95 of them were unable to be used. The rationale for this deletion was that these respondents came from Chinese domestic hotels, or their questionnaires were careless completed. Ultimately, 307 questionnaires were used for data analysis. The results of the demographic profiles are presented in Table 8.1, Table 8.2 and Table 8.3:

Table 8.1: Demographic profiles of respondents

Variable	Group	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	111	36.2
	Female	196	63.8
Education	Diploma or below	115	37.5
	Bachelor degree	173	56.4
	Master or above	19	6.2
Economic regions of current employment	East	131	42.7
	West	172	56.0
	Central	2	0.7
	Northeast	2	0.7
Department	Housekeeping	35	11.4
	Food & Beverage	70	22.8
	Sales & Marketing	46	15.0
	Human resource	41	13.4
	Front office	88	28.7
	Finance	9	2.9
	General manager office	9	2.9
	Other	9	2.9
Position classification	Non-supervisory employee	169	55.0
	Supervisor	52	16.9
	Department manager	53	17.3
	Director	12	3.9
	General manager	4	1.3
	Other	17	5.5
lengths of service in years in international hotel chains	Less than 1 year	76	24.8
	1-3 years	119	38.8
	4-10 years	91	29.6
	More than 10 years	21	6.8

8.2.1 Demographic profiles

Genders

Among 307 respondents, 111 (36.2%) were male and 196 (63.8%) were female. It was therefore shown that there was a higher proportion of female respondents. This result reflects the fact that there are more female than male employees working in the hotel industry (Zhang, 2016).

Education levels

In terms of education levels, Table 8.1 shows that more than half of respondents had a Bachelor degree (56.4%, n=173), followed by those qualified to diploma level or below (37.5, n=115). Only 19 respondents (6.2%) held a master's degree or above.

Economic regions

Data was collected from 30 cities, which were from four economic regions. The National Bureau of Statistics of China (2011) indicates that Chinese economic regions are divided into Eastern, Western, Central and North-eastern. As shown by Table 8.1, more than half of the respondents worked in the Western economic region (56.0%, n=172), and the second largest group was in the Eastern economic region (42.7%, n=131). This reflects the fact that although IHCs developed earlier in the Eastern economic region, they expanded from East to West in 2000, due to the rapid economic growth of the Western region (Zhang et al., 2012, Yu, 2006). The author's hometown is Chongqing, a city in the Chinese Western region, where a good social network has been developed. This therefore influenced the results of the data collection.

Departments

The study collected data from nine specific departments of IHCs. Seven of nine are presented in Table 8.1. The other two departments were Security and Engineering, which produced only one respondent each. Because Morgan et al., (2013) indicate that the lowest requirement for using one-way ANOVA testing is to have two respondents per group, these two departments were classified as 'Other'.

Positions

This research classified six different positions, specifically: non-supervisory employees, supervisors, department managers, directors, general managers and others. Table 8.1 shows that more than half of employees were non-supervisory (55.0%, n=169). This might reflect the fact that non-supervisory employees represent the highest proportion of the staff of a hotel chain. A hotel chain branch has one general manager, so the respondents who in this role represented the lowest proportion in this study (1.5%, n=5).

After a critical review of the relevant literature, the author found that the majority of researchers (e.g. Chiang and Birtch, 2008; Chiang and Birth, 2010; Lu et al., 2016; Qu et al., 2001; Wong et al., 1999) did not consider directors and general managers as employees when they researched employee motivation, performance and job satisfaction. However, CIPD (2017) defines employees as: 'those who work under an employment contract that is made by writing, orally, or both but must be in writing within two months of their commencement of employment'. In other words, although directors and general managers are at senior managerial levels, they should be considered as employees. This study's participants include therefore directors and general managers.

lengths of service in years in the hotel industry was divided into four groups: less than one year, 1-3 years, 4-10 years and more than 10 years (as presented in Table 8.1). Among the four groups, employees with 1-3 years' service represented the highest proportion (38.8%, n=119), followed by those with 4-10 years (29.6%, n=91) and less than one year of service (24.8%, n=76), and those with more than ten years' work experience had the lowest proportion. It also indicated that more than half of the respondents (63.6%, n=195) had less than 3 years' work experience in the Chinese hotel industry. The fact that many respondents have short length of service in the hotel industry may be representative of the reported high turnover rate in China's hotel industry (Qiu et al., 2015; Yang, 2014). This also highlights the importance of employee job satisfaction, as it is closely related to turnover rate (Cheng and Brown, 1998; Choi, 2006; Davidson *et al*, 2006; Gu and Siu, 2009; Lam *et al.*, 2003; Qiu *et al.*, 2015).

8.2.2 Hotels where respondents were employed

The respondents of this study came from 43 different IHCs; Table 8.2 presents their details. It is noted that eight respondents were unwilling to reveal which international hotel chains were their employers. Therefore, the international hotel chains where these eight respondents worked were included in 'Other'.

Table 8.2: International hotel chains

Hotel chain	Frequency	%		Hotel chain	Frequency	%
Regent	36	11.7		Days Inn	32	10.4
Holiday Inn	30	9.8		Hilton	22	7.2
Wyndham	19	6.2		Marriott	17	5.5
Sheraton	14	4.6		Shangri-La	14	4.6
Meliá	12	3.9		InterContinental	11	3.6
W	11	3.6		Angsana	5	1.6
Hampton by Hilton	5	1.6		Holiday Inn express	5	1.6
Hyatt	5	1.6		Ritz-Carlton	5	1.6
Sofitel	5	1.6		JW Marriott	4	1.3
Kayumanis	4	1.3		Kempinski	4	1.3
Mandarin Oriental	4	1.3		Le Meridien	3	1.0
Niccolo	3	1.0		Westin	3	1.0
Conrad	2	0.7		Four Seasons	2	0.7
Marco Polo	2	0.7		Radisson Blu	2	0.7
Renaissance	2	0.7		Rosewood	2	0.7
St. Regis	2	0.7		Andaz	1	0.3
Auwi	1	0.3		Banyan Tree	1	0.3
Courtyard	1	0.3		Double Tree	1	0.3
Fairmont	1	0.3		Grand Hyatt	1	0.3
Hotel Nikko	1	0.3		Howard Johnson	1	0.3
Kyriad	1	0.3		Pullman	1	0.3
Others	9	2.9				

The 42 IHCs respondents worked in 17 international hotel groups (as presented in Table 8.3). According to the Tourism Review (2017), Marriott International, Hilton Worldwide, AccorHotels, Wyndham Hotel Group, Hyatt Hotels Corporation, Jin Jiang International, Shangri-La Hotels & Resorts, Meliá Hotels International, InterContinental Hotels Group and NH Hotel Group were the world's ten leading hotel groups. Table 8.3 shows that the data included nine of the ten leading hotel groups (Marriott International, Hilton Worldwide, AccorHotels, Wyndham Hotel Group, Hyatt Hotels Corporation, Jin Jiang International, Shangri-La Hotels & Resorts, Meliá Hotels International and InterContinental Hotels Group), which accounted for 85 percent of responses in this study. This indicated that the data collected in the study had representativeness.

Table 8.3: International hotel groups

International hotel groups	Frequency	Percent
InterContinental Hotels Group	83	27.0
Marriott International	61	19.9
Wyndham Hotel Group	52	16.9
Hilton Worldwide	30	9.8
Shangri-La Hotels & Resorts	14	4.3
AccorHotels	13	4.2
Meliá Hotels International	12	3.9
Hyatt Hotels Corporation	7	2.3
Marco Polo Hotels	5	1.6
Kayumanis	4	1.3
Kempinski Hotels	4	1.3
Mandarin Oriental Hotel Group	4	1.3
Jin Jiang International	3	1.0
Four Seasons Hotels & Resorts	2	0.7
Rosewood Hotels & Resorts	2	0.7
Auwi	1	0.3
Nikko Hotels Company	1	0.3
Other	9	2.9

8.3 The influences of demographic profiles on employee autonomous motivation

As previously noted, employee autonomous motivation was considered as the process in the study's theoretical model. This Section addresses the question, namely: 'I feel psychological self-determination to engage in work at the international hotel chain'. This is both the global and the sole indicator of the construct of employee autonomous motivation. According to the test, the mean figure for this indicator was 5.48, and Std. Deviation was 1.287. It is noted that these answers were based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree). This result indicated that most respondents had high employee autonomous motivation to work for IHCs in China. This was consistent with the research of Xiong and King (2015), which demonstrated that employees in the hotel industry had high motivation to work. The following sections assess the influences

of genders, education levels, departments, regions, positions and years of work experience in the hotel industry on employee autonomous motivation.

8.3.1 The influences of genders on employee autonomous motivation

Independent samples t-test was adopted to assess whether there were statistically significant differences between males and females in terms of employee autonomous motivation. Table 8.4 presents the results of gender difference in relation to employee motivation. According to Table 8.4, it is indicated that there were no significant differences between the genders, even though the male mean was higher than the female mean.

Table 8.4: Differences in employee autonomous motivation between males and females

Gender	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Sig.
Male	5.61	111	1.266	.982 n's.
Female	5.40	196	1.295	
n's. p>0.05				

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

This result was inconsistent with the research of Curtis et al. (2009) and Wei et al. (2012) which demonstrated that there were significant differences between the genders in the hotel industry in China. Additionally, Dipietro et al., (2014) confirmed that that females were more motivated than males in the hotel industry in Aruba. However, their research did not focus on IHCs. Horng et al., (2016) conducted research in IHCs, which demonstrated that there was no significant difference between females and males in relation to employee motivation at IHCs in Taiwan. This study accorded with the research

of Horng et al. (2016). It is therefore indicated that both males and females working in IHCs have high levels of psychological autonomy.

8.3.2 The influences of education levels on employee autonomous motivation

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the differences of different education levels in employee autonomous motivation. Table 8.5 confirms that there was no statistically significant difference between the three different levels of education of the groups of respondents in relation to employee autonomous motivation, after running the LSD (least significance difference) post-hoc tests. This was inconsistent with the research of Horng et al., (2016) which demonstrated the statistically significant differences in employee autonomous motivation across the different education levels in the hotel industry. Wong et al. (1999) also reported that employees with higher levels of education were more motivated.

Table 8.5: Differences in employee autonomous motivation among different education levels

	Sum Squares	of df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.570	2	1.785	1.079	.341 n's.
Within Groups	502.997	304	1.655		
Total	506.567	306			
n's. $p > 0.05$					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

However, this study's findings might be influenced by the fact that all respondents were from IHCs. Hon and Chan (2013a) and Karatepe and Tizabi (2011) collected data from IHCs, and indicated that there was no significant difference between different levels of

education in international hotel chains. This study resonates with the research of Hon and Chan (2013a) and Karatepe and Tizabi (2011).

8.3.3 The influences of departments on employee autonomous motivation

According to the one-way ANOVA test, there were statistically significant differences in employee autonomous motivation in relation to different departments (as presented on Table 8.6). Specifically, after running LSD post-hoc tests, the results showed that employees in housekeeping departments ($p=0.020<0.05$) and food & beverage departments ($p=0.011<0.05$) have significantly lower autonomous motivation than those working in human resources departments.

Table 8.6: Differences in employee autonomous motivation among different departments

	Sum Squares	of df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	23.257	7	3.322	2.055	.048*
Within Groups	483.310	299	1.616		
Total	506.567	306			
* $p<0.05$					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

This study's results resonate with Kuang (2013) and Tian and Pu (2008), who indicated that employees in front-line departments (e.g. food and beverage, front office and housekeeping) had lower workplace motivation than those in 'backstage' departments (e.g. Human Resource and Finance). It is influenced by the fact that working intensity for front-line employees is higher, but pay is lower (Kuang, 2013; Tian and Pu, 2008).

8.3.4 The influences of economic regions on employee autonomous motivation

Table 8.7 reveals the results of the differences between different economic regional groups in relation to employee motivation through the one-way ANOVA test. This indicates that there were statistically significant differences between groups from different economic regions ($p=0.001<0.01$).

Table 8.7: Differences in employee autonomous motivation among different regions

	Sum Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	27.242	3	9.081	5.740	.001**
Within Groups	479.324	303	1.582		
Total	506.567	306			
** $p<0.01$					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

Specifically, after running the LSD post-hoc tests, the results demonstrated that there were significant differences between Eastern and Western economic regions ($p=0.000<0.01$). Respondents in the Western economic region were more autonomously motivated to work (mean=5.70) than those in the Eastern economic region (mean=5.15). After a critical review of the relevant literature, the study found that little research compared employee motivation between the different regions. This study therefore aims to fill this research gap. The previous research found that IHCs rapidly expanded their branches in the Western region after 2000 (Zhang et al., 2012, Yu, 2006). This study contends that IHCs' expansion in the Western economic region creates attractive opportunities for those who choose to work in IHCs, therefore they remain motivated in the workplace.

8.3.5 The influences of positions on employee autonomous motivation

According to the one-way ANOVA test, there were statistically significant differences between levels of employee autonomous motivation among staff in different job roles (as presented on Table 8.8). After running the LSD post-hoc tests, this study demonstrated that non-supervisory employees' motivation was significantly different between department managers ($p=0.006<0.05$) and directors ($p=0.039<0.05$). Across the three groups, directors have the highest motivation to work in IHCs (mean=6.08), followed by department managers (mean=5.85), and non-supervisory employees' motivation was the lowest (mean=5.30). It is indicated that employees of IHCs in higher positions are more autonomously motivated at work.

Table 8.8: Differences in employee autonomous motivation among different positions

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	18.845	5	3.769	2.326	.043*
Within Groups	487.722	301	1.620		
Total	506.567	306			
* $p<0.05$					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

These results resonate with the research of Chiang and Birtch (2008) and Wong et al., (1999). Chiang and Birtch (2008) confirm that managers work harder than non-managerial employees. Wong et al., (1999) indicated that three motivators (job security, feelings of being involved and opportunities for development) had significant differences among non-supervisory employees, supervisory staff and managers. However, this study's results did not show significant difference between supervisors and non-supervisory employees. This might be because non-supervisory employees and

supervisors can be classified as non-managerial staff (Chiang and Birtch, 2008; Chiang and Birtch, 2010). Additionally, this study shows that the significant difference between the responses of non-supervisory employees and directors extended the scope of research into position analysis, because respondents in quantitative research were rarely directors.

8.3.6 The influences of lengths of service in years on employee autonomous motivation

A one-way ANOVA was adopted to test for any statistically significant differences in employee motivation by lengths of service in years. Table 8.9 presents the results of the one-way ANOVA test, and significant differences were indicated ($p=0.002<0.01$). Specifically, after running the LSD post-hoc tests, the results confirmed that the group with less than one year of work experience had the most significant differences from the group with 1-3 years' work experience ($p=0.021<0.05$), the group with 4-10 years' work experience ($p=0.000<0.01$) and the group with more than ten years' work experience ($p=0.006<0.01$). Among the three groups, employees with more than ten years' work experience had the highest autonomous motivation to work in IHCs (mean=5.90), followed by employees with 4-10 years' work experience (mean=5.75) and employees with 1-3 years' work experience (mean=5.47); the lowest figure was that of employees with less than one year of work experience (mean=5.04).

Table 8.9: Differences in employee autonomous motivation by lengths of service in years

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	25.042	3	8.347	5.253	.002**
Within Groups	481.525	303	1.589		
Total	506.567	306			
** $p<0.01$					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

In short, this study's results show that employees with the greatest lengths of service at IHCs had higher levels of workplace autonomous motivation. The results are inconsistent with the research of Horng et al. (2016) and Wong et al. (1999), who suggested that there was no significant difference between staff with different lengths of service. As shown in qualitative data results, standard management systems, learning, and career development are primary drivers of employee autonomous motivation at IHCs. When employees have greater lengths of service in IHCs, they are more familiar with management systems and promote their learning and career development (Kalargyrou and Woods, 2011; Li, 2011; Qu, 2015; Tian, 2013). In this regard, employees with greater lengths of service were more autonomously motivated. This resonates with Karatepe and Tizabi (2011) and Hon (2012), who demonstrate the significant differences in employee motivation across groups with different lengths of work experience in the hotel industry.

8.4 The influences of demographic profiles on overall job performance

As previously mentioned, employee performance was considered as an outcome in the study's theoretical model. This Section addresses the statement: 'My overall performance is good', which is the global indicator for the construct of employee job performance. This Section therefore assesses overall employee job performance.

According to this test, the mean figure for this indicator was 5.60, and the Std. Deviation was 1.075. It was noted that the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree). This result indicates that most respondents rated their overall job performance as 'good'. This result is consistent with the research of Akgunduz (2015), Karatepe (2013a), and Salanova et al., (2005). The following contents assessed the influences of genders, education levels, departments, regions, positions and years of work experience in the hotel industry on employee overall job performance.

8.4.1 The influences of genders on overall job performance

Independent samples t-test was adopted in order to assess whether there were statistically-significant differences between the genders in relation to overall job performance; the results are presented in Table 8.10. Table 8.10 indicates that there was no significant difference between the genders, although the male mean figure was higher than the female mean figure.

Table 8.10: Differences in overall job performance between males and females

Gender	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t value
Male	5.69	111	.998	.105 n's.
Female	5.54	196	1.116	
n's. p>0.05				

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

The reason that the mean figure of male overall job performance was higher than that of females could be that female employees were expected to focus on their families in line with the Chinese traditional view of gender roles (Cooke, 2010). However, the majority of staff in the hotel industry are female (Zhang, 2016). This situation may influence the result in that there was no significant difference between the genders in relation to overall employee performance. This result was consistent with Akgunduz (2015). Akgunduz (2015) presented that the male mean figure was higher than the female mean figure in terms of employee job performance, while there was no significant difference.

8.4.2 The influences of education levels, departments and regions on overall job performance

A one-way ANOVA was used to compare the differences in levels of education levels to overall job performance. Table 8.11 shows that there was no statistically-significant difference between the figures of respondents by level of education. The results indicated that employees with the best performance did not necessarily have the highest levels of education. This resonated with the findings of Li et al., (2012), Ling et al., (2017) and Zhu et al., (2017) whose research confirmed that good job performance did not necessarily indicate a higher level of education in the Chinese hotel industry.

Table 8.11: Differences in overall job performance across different education levels

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.175	2	.088	.075	.927 n's.
Within Groups	353.740	304	1.164		
Total	353.915	306			
n's. $p > 0.05$					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

Table 8.12: Differences in overall job performance across different departments

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	18.817	7	2.213	1.728	.102 n's.
Within Groups	335.099	299	1.280		
Total	353.915	306			
n's. $p > 0.05$					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

Table 8.13: Differences in overall job performance across different regions

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	14.769	3	1.944	1.502	.214 n's.
Within Groups	339.147	303	1.294		
Total	353.915	306			
n's. $p>0.05$					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

According to a one-way ANOVA test, there were no statistically significant differences in relation to employees' overall job performance across the different departments (as presented in Table 8.12). This might be explained by the fact that different departments had different requirements for the assessment of employee job performance (Bai, 2018). On the other hand, Table 8.13 shows the results of the differences between different regional groups in terms of overall employee performance through the one-way ANOVA test. It was shown that there was no significant difference between different regional groups.

8.4.3 The influences of positions on overall job performance

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to assess whether there were statistically significant differences between overall job performance in different positions. Table 8.14 shows the results of a one-way ANOVA test, which verified the significance of differences between positions ($p=0.000<0.01$). Specifically, after running the LSD post-hoc tests, this study demonstrates that departmental managers showed significant differences to non-supervisory employees ($p=0.000<0.01$) and supervisors ($p=0.000<0.01$) in terms of overall performance. Comparing the mean figures of the three groups, department managers were the highest (mean=6.25), followed by non-supervisory employees (mean=5.43) and supervisors (mean=5.40).

Table 8.14: Differences in overall job performance among different positions

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	29.235	5	5.847	5.421	.000**
Within Groups	324.680	301	1.079		
Total	353.915	306			
**p<0.01					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

The results resonated with Qu et al. (2001) whose findings demonstrated significant differences across different job positions. The research of Chiang and Birtch (2008) also found that accuracy of work and quality of customer-related services were the key elements of employee job performance, which were significantly different between managers and non-managerial employees.

8.4.4 The influences of lengths of service in years on overall job performance

To test whether there were statistically-significant differences in overall job performance among staff with differing lengths of service in years, a one-way ANOVA test was used. Table 8.15 presents the results of the one-way ANOVA test, which defined the significant differences ($p=0.001<0.01$). After running the LSD post-hoc tests, the results revealed that respondents with 4-10 years' work experience ($p=0.003<0.05$, mean=5.90) or more than 10 years' work experience ($p=0.023<0.05$, mean=6.00) had higher overall performance than those with 1-3 years' work experience (mean=5.41).

Table 8.15: Differences in overall job performance across lengths of service in years

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	18.627	3	6.209	5.611	.001**
Within Groups	335.289	303	1.107		
Total	353.915	306			
**p<0.01					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

The study's results were in line with those of Akgunduz (2015), who concluded that there was significant difference between staff with differing lengths of service, and employees with longer service normally had higher job performance. However, Hon and Lu (2013) and Zhu et al. (2017) did not find that differences in lengths of service influenced employee job performance in the Chinese hotel industry.

8.5 The influences of demographic profiles on overall job satisfaction

As previously noted, employee job satisfaction was considered as an outcome in the study's theoretical model. This Section addresses the question, stated as: 'I feel satisfied with my present job'. This is the global indicator for the construct of employee job satisfaction. In short, this Section assesses overall job satisfaction.

According to the test, the mean for this indicator was 5.30, and the Std. Deviation was 1.384. It was noted that the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree). This result was consistent with the research of Lu et al. (2016) and Cruz et al. (2014) which demonstrated that employees' overall job satisfaction was high in the hotel industry. However, the result was inconsistent with the study of Amissah et al. (2016) which reported low overall employee job satisfaction. The following contents

specifically assessed the influences of genders, education levels, departments, regions, positions and years of work experience on employee overall job satisfaction.

8.5.1 The influences of genders on overall job satisfaction

Independent samples t-test was applied to assess whether there were statistically significant differences between the genders in relation to overall job satisfaction; the results are presented in Table 8.16. Table 8.16 indicates that there was no significant difference between the genders, even though the male mean was higher than the female mean.

Table 8.16: Differences in overall job satisfaction between males and females

Gender	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t value
Male	5.46	111	1.242	.051 n's.
Female	5.21	196	1.454	
n's. p>0.05				

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

These results resonated with the research findings of Pan (2015). However, Dipietro et al. (2014) and Gallardo et al. (2010) demonstrated significant differences in employee job satisfaction between the genders. Both Dipietro et al. (2014) and Gallardo et al. (2010) confirmed that males were more satisfied with their current present than females.

8.5.2 The influences of education levels on overall job satisfaction

A one-way ANOVA was employed to compare the differences different in levels of education in relation to overall job satisfaction. Table 8.17 demonstrates that there was no statistically significant difference between the three different groups.

Table 8.17: Differences in overall job satisfaction across different education levels

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8.211	2	4.106	2.159	.117 n's.
Within Groups	578.219	304	1.902		
Total	586.430	306			
n's. $p>0.05$					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

The study's results were inconsistent with those of Gallardo et al. (2010), which presented significant differences between respondents with different levels of education. However, this study resonates with Chiang and Birtch (2010) and Pan (2015), which indicated who found that there was no significant difference between respondents with different levels of education.

8.5.3 The influences of departments on overall job satisfaction

According to a one-way ANOVA test, there were statistically-significant differences in relation to overall job satisfaction across the different departments (as presented in Table 8.18). After running the LSD post-hoc tests, the results demonstrated that respondents from housekeeping ($p=0.019$, mean=5.34), sales & marketing ($p=0.000$, mean=5.67), human resources ($p=0.000$, mean=6.05), front office ($p=0.030$, mean=5.16), finance ($p=0.011$, mean=5.89), and General Manager's office ($p=0.006$, mean=6.00) were more satisfied with their current work than those from food and beverage (mean=4.70).

Table 8.18: Differences in overall job satisfaction among different departments

	Sum Squares	of df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	68.949	7	9.850	5.691	.000**
Within Groups	517.481	299	1.731		
Total	586.430	306			
**p<0.01					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

The study's results were consistent with the research of Ding (2014), which reported that employees from food and beverage were less satisfied with their current work than those from other departments in the Chinese hotel industry. This study also appeared to resonate with previous research (Kuang, 2013; Tian and Pu, 2008), which indicated that employees in front-line departments (e.g. food & beverage, front office and housekeeping) had lower satisfaction in the workplace than those of 'backstage' departments (e.g. human resources and finance).

8.5.4 The influences of regions on overall job satisfaction

Table 8.19 shows the difference in results of the various region groups in relation to overall job satisfaction through the one-way ANOVA test. It was indicated that there were statistically-significant differences between results from the various region groups ($p=0.000<0.01$). Further, after running the LSD post-hoc tests, the results showed significant differences between Eastern and Western regions in terms of overall job satisfaction ($p=0.000<0.01$). Comparison of the mean of the two groups indicated that employees from the Western regions (mean=5.00) were more satisfied with their current work than those from Eastern regions (mean=4.80).

Table 8.19: Differences in overall job satisfaction across different regions

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	58.980	3	19.660	11.294	.000**
Within Groups	527.450	303	1.741		
Total	586.430	306			
**p<0.01					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

Previous studies (Ding, 2014; Humborstad and Perry, 2011; Kuang, 2013; Li and Wang, 2016; Tian and Pu, 2008; Xu, 2017; Zhai and Wang, 2013) showed that employees' job satisfaction was normally not high in the Chinese hotel industry. However, there was little research which compared employee job satisfaction between Western and Eastern regions. The two regions have different situations; for example, although the development of the hotel industry is better in the Eastern region than the Western region, living standards in the Eastern region are much higher than in the Western region (National Bureau of Statistics, 2019). This means that employees living in the Eastern region have much higher life pressures, so this may be the reason why respondents from the Western region have higher satisfaction with their current job than those from the Eastern region.

8.5.5 The influences of positions on employee overall job satisfaction

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to assess whether there were statistically-significant differences in overall job satisfaction across different job positions. Table 8.20 shows the results of a one-way ANOVA test, which confirmed the significant differences across different positions ($p=0.010<0.05$). Specifically, after running the LSD post-hoc tests, this study demonstrates significant difference in levels of overall job satisfaction between non-supervisory staff and department managers ($p=0.003<0.01$). Between the two groups,

department managers (mean=5.75) were more satisfied with their current job than non-supervisory staff (mean=5.15)

Table 8.20: Differences in overall job satisfaction across different positions

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	28.358	5	5.672	3.059	.010*
Within Groups	558.072	301	1.854		
Total	586.430	306			
*p<0.05					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

To some extent, the results differed from those of Chiang and Birtch (2010), who reported no significant difference between managerial and non-managerial employees. In fact, with the exception of the significant difference between non-supervisory employees and department managers, there was no significant differences across different job positions through LSD post-hoc tests. This might be explained by the fact that employee job satisfaction in different job positions was influenced by a variety of factors (Lu et al., 2016). For example, Lee and Way (2010) reported that job satisfaction of supervisors was mainly impacted by work environment, while relationships with leaders and compensation were key factors which influenced non-supervisory employees.

8.5.6 The influences of lengths of service in years on overall job satisfaction

To test whether there were statistically-significant differences in levels of overall job satisfaction by lengths of service in years, a one-way ANOVA was used. Table 8.21 presents the results of the one-way ANOVA test, which indicates significant differences ($p=0.000<0.01$). Specifically, after running the LSD post-hoc tests, the results confirmed that the group with less than one year of service had significant difference to the group

with 1-3 years' service ($p=0.003<0.01$), the group with 4-10 years' service ($p=0.000<0.01$) and the group with more than ten years' service ($p=0.000<0.05$). Among the three groups, employees with more than ten years' service had the highest satisfaction levels with their current present work in IHCs (mean=6.00), followed by employees with 4-10 years' service (mean=5.70) and 1-3 years' service (mean=5.26), and the lowest level among staff with less than one year of service (mean=4.68).

Table 8.21: Differences in overall job satisfaction by lengths of service in years

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	54.096	3	18.032	10.264	.000**
Within Groups	532.334	303	1.757		
Total	586.430	306			
* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$					

Note: the answer was based on a 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree)

However, the study's results were not consistent with those of Cruz (2014), Lam et al., (2001) and Pan (2015). Their research found no significant difference by lengths of service in years. The reason for the difference in results is that this study's research was into IHCs. As previously mentioned, standard management systems give competitive advantage in terms of employee retention in IHCs (Qu, 2015; Tian, 2013). This study's qualitative research demonstrates that staff of IHCs with greater length of service in years are motivated by standard management systems. This means that staff who have longer tenure in IHCs are more satisfied in their work.

8.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, the purpose of this Chapter was to meet the first objective of Aim Two. This chapter assesses the influences of demographic profiles on employee autonomous

motivation, job performance, and satisfaction. The results of profile analysis showed that the majority of respondents have a high level of employee autonomous motivation, overall job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China. Regarding employee autonomous motivation, groups from departments, economic regions, positions, and years of work experience showed statistically- significant differences. In terms of overall job performance, groups from different positions and years of work experience had statistically significant differences. In relation to overall job satisfaction, groups from different departments, regions, positions and years of work experience had statistically significant differences.

Because little research has compared the differences between different regions in the Chinese hotel industry, this study aimed to fill this research gap. This Chapter reported that respondents from the Chinese Western region were more motivated to work, and more satisfied with their present job than those from the Chinese Eastern region. The job role of ‘director’ was rarely included in previous research which investigated and assessed levels of employee motivation, job performance and satisfaction. This study’s findings indicate that directors and department managers had higher levels of motivation in their work than non-supervisory employees. In the following Chapter, the author provides detailed findings in order to address the remaining two objectives of Aim Two.

Chapter 9 The structural relationships among employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction: The analysis of mediation

9.1 Introduction

Following assessment of the influence of demographic profiles on employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction, this Chapter addresses the remaining two objectives (to assess the direct relationships between the constructs and mediating effects of the theoretical model) of Aim Two. In order to assess the direct relationships between constructs and mediating effects, the software programme SmartPLS 3.2.8 is used to test measurement and structural models.

This Chapter consists of five Sections. Section One provides the explanations and assessment results of the reflective measurement model and the formative measurement model. Section Two shows the results of the structural model. Section Three discusses the study's hypotheses (direct relationships) with previous literature. Section Four clarifies the results of the mediation analysis. Section Five presents the key findings of this Chapter.

9.2 Measurement model assessment

The theoretical model tests seven constructs (latent variables), labelled as: (1) transformational leadership (TMLS), (2) learning goal orientation (LGO), (3) personality (PSN), (4) employee autonomous motivation (EAM), (5) employee job performance (EJP), (6) employee job satisfaction (EJS), and (7) supervisor-subordinate guanxi (Sr-Se GX). As noted in Chapter Six, partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-

SEM) is appropriately applied in this study. Assessment of PLS-SEM results consists of two stages: the first stage is the testing of measurement models and the second stage is to assess the structural model (Chin, 2010). When the measurement models meet the requirements, the research is able to progress to the second stage (Sarstedt et al., 2014). The software programme SmartPLS 3.2.8 is used to test the results.

The measurement model, which is divided into two types (reflective measurement model and formative measurement model), shows the relationship between a construct and its linked indicators (Hair et al., 2017). A reflective measurement model shows that the construct leads to the indicators, while a formative measurement model demonstrates that the indicators lead to the construct (Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer, 2001). Table 9.1 shows the detail of explanations for the reflective measurement model and the formative measurement model, while Table 9.2 presents the reflective and formative constructs of this study.

Table 9.1: Reflective and formative measurement models

Criterion	The reflective measurement model	The formative measurement model
Causality	From the construct to the indicators	From the indicators to the construct
Trait or combination	The construct is a trait which explains the indicators	The construct is a combination of the indicators
Consequences or causes	Indicators are as the consequences of the construct	Indicators are as the causes of the construct
The relationship between the trait and indicators	All indicators will change in a similar way, if the assessment of the trait changes	All indicators will not change, if the assessment of the trait changes
Interchangeable	Indicators can be mutually interchanged	Indicators cannot be mutually interchanged

Source: adopted from Hair et al. (2017)

Table 9.2: Reflective and formative constructs

Reflective constructs	Transformational leadership
	Employee autonomous motivation
	Employee job performance
	Employee job satisfaction
	Supervisor-subordinate guanxi
Formative constructs	Personality
	Learning goal orientation

9.2.1 Reflective measurement models assessment

Table 9.2 shows that the study has a total of five reflective constructs, specifically: transformational leadership, employee autonomous motivation, employee performance, employee job satisfaction, and supervisor-subordinate (Sr-Se) guanxi. According to Hair et al., (2017), assessment of reflective measurement models takes place in four stages: internal consistency reliability, indicator reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity.

Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency reliability is the first step in the assessment of reflective measurement models, and the appropriate criteria for the testing of the internal consistency reliability are Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (Hair et al., 2017). According to Nunnally (1978), the values of Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability should be at least 0.70. Table 9.3 shows that all values of Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability are between 0.80 and 1.000, which meet the minimal requirement of 0.70.

Table 9.3: Internal consistency reliability

	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
TMLS	0.970	0.975
EAM	1.000	1.000
EJP	0.919	0.946
Sr-Se GX	0.889	0.897
EJS	0.908	0.920

Although Hair et al., (2017) contend that values above 0.90 are undesirable, other researchers (e.g. Chen and Huang, 2018; Kim et al., 2016b; Loureiro et al., 2012; Wong, 2016), who employed the PLS method in their studies stated that there was no problem when values were above 0.90. Additionally, the construct of motivation used single-item measure, thus this construct's values of Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability were 1.000 (Wong, 2016). The study's results therefore meet the requirement of internal consistency reliability.

Convergent validity

To meet the convergent validity, the values of average variance extracted (AVE) are required to be greater than 0.50 (Wong, 2013). Table 9.4 shows the results of the values of AVE, and indicates that all values of AVE were above 0.50. Therefore, convergent validity is confirmed.

Table 9.4: Average variance extracted

Construct	AVE
TMLS	0.850
EAM	1.000
EJP	0.686
Sr-Se GX	0.692
EJS	0.737

Indicator reliability

Indicator reliability normally refers to assessment of the size of the outer loadings (Wong, 2016). Hair et al., (2017) propose that outer loadings should be no smaller than 0.70. Table 9.5 presents the sizes of the outer loadings for all constructs in the reflective measurement models.

Table 9.5: Outer loadings

Construct	Indicators	Outer loadings	Construct	Indicators	Outer loadings
TMLS	LS_1	0.893	EJP	EJP_1	0.891
	LS_2	0.941		EJP_2	0.917
	LS_3	0.935		EJP_3	0.627
	LS_4	0.934		EJP_4	0.897
	LS_5	0.944		EJP_5	0.901
	LS_6	0.923		EJP_6	0.884
	LS_7	0.880		EJP_7	0.612
Sr-Se GX	Sr-Se GX_1	0.797	EJS	EJS_1	0.920
	Sr-Se GX_2	0.806		EJS_2	0.925
	Sr-Se GX_3	0.853		EJS_3	0.900
	Sr-Se GX_4	0.856		EJS_4	0.709
	Sr-Se GX_5	0.846		EJS_5	0.818
EAM	EAM_G	1.000			

Table 9.5 shows that there are two indicators (EJP_3 and EJP_7) which had outer loadings below 0.70. However, if deleting outer loadings between 0.40 and 0.70 do not increase the measures of composite reliability and AVE, they can be retained (Hair et al., 2017). The two outer loadings were 0.627 (EJP_3) and 0.612 (EJP_7) respectively, therefore the author deleted the two indicators for testing of composite reliability and AVE again. After deleting the two outer loadings, the author found that the measures above the threshold were not increased. Furthermore, Hulland (1999) observed that an outer loading larger

than 0.60 is acceptable. Therefore, the two outer loadings were retained, and indicator reliability is confirmed.

Discriminant validity

To meet discriminant validity, the cross-loading of each indicator on the associated construct should be highest, however the square root of AVE on the diagonal, which is known as Fornell-Larcker Criterion, has the greatest value (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). As shown by Tables 9.6 and 9.7, the results indicate that the discriminant validity of the reflective measurement models is confirmed:

Table 9.6: Cross loadings

	TMLS	EAM	EJP	Sr-Se GX	EJS
EJP 1	0.529	0.563	0.891	0.499	0.549
EJP 2	0.520	0.535	0.917	0.471	0.556
EJP 3	0.303	0.293	0.627	0.330	0.330
EJP 4	0.498	0.496	0.897	0.487	0.536
EJP 5	0.516	0.537	0.901	0.488	0.579
EJP 6	0.524	0.486	0.884	0.551	0.602
EJP 7	0.279	0.351	0.712	0.174	0.306
EJS 1	0.669	0.581	0.554	0.641	0.920
EJS 2	0.646	0.588	0.565	0.640	0.925
EJS 3	0.627	0.621	0.623	0.593	0.900
EJS 4	0.511	0.328	0.325	0.607	0.709
EJS 5	0.590	0.541	0.531	0.516	0.818
Sr-Se GX 1	0.505	0.281	0.311	0.797	0.514
Sr-Se GX 2	0.714	0.538	0.632	0.806	0.660
Sr-Se GX 3	0.533	0.324	0.368	0.853	0.536
Sr-Se GX 4	0.600	0.460	0.504	0.856	0.604
Sr-Se GX 5	0.607	0.353	0.349	0.846	0.549
TMLS 1	0.893	0.556	0.542	0.693	0.678
TMLS 2	0.941	0.564	0.533	0.698	0.689
TMLS 3	0.935	0.549	0.535	0.722	0.667
TMLS 4	0.934	0.552	0.535	0.657	0.670
TMLS 5	0.944	0.526	0.502	0.668	0.682
TMLS 6	0.923	0.519	0.543	0.610	0.642
TMLS 7	0.880	0.413	0.426	0.595	0.544
EAM G	0.573	1.000	0.574	0.484	0.628

Table 9.7: Fornell-Larcker Criterion

	TMLS	EAM	EJP	Sr-Se GX	EJS
TMLS	0.922				
EAM	0.573	1.000			
EJP	0.562	0.574	0.828		
Sr-Se GX	0.722	0.484	0.538	0.832	
EJS	0.712	0.628	0.614	0.697	0.858

9.2.2 Formative measurement models assessment

According to Table 9.1, one of features of a formative construct is that its linked indicators are not mutually interchangeable. For the construct of personality, each indicator represents a dimension of the ‘Big Five’, therefore one indicator cannot be interchanged with the others. In other words, this construct is formative. According to Button and Mathieu (1996), all indicators represent the causes of learning goal orientation, therefore the construct of learning goal orientation is formative.

Because a construct’s formative indicators do not have deep relationships with each other, indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, and discriminant validity, which are assessed in the reflective measurement model, do not need to be analysed in the formative measurement model (Wong, 2013). According to Hair et al., (2017), assessment of the formative measurement model comprises three steps: collinearity assessment, convergent validity, and significance and relevance of outer weights. As shown by Table 9.2, this study has two formative measurement models: one is for the construct of learning goal orientation, and the other is for the construct of personality.

Collinearity assessment

To assess collinearity, the variance inflation factor (VIF) needs to be no greater than five, or there is a critical level of collinearity (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). Table 9.8 shows that all

VIF values of formative indicators are below five. It is indicated that there is no critical level of collinearity in the study's formative measurement models.

Table 9.8: Collinearity assessment of formative measurement model

Construct	Indicator	VIF	Construct	Indicator	VIF
LGO	LGO_1	3.448	PSN	PN_1	1.986
	LGO_2	3.914		PN_2	1.819
	LGO_3	4.604		PN_3	2.540
	LGO_4	2.904		PN_4	2.133
	LGO_5	2.416		PN_5	2.260
	LGO_6	3.149		PN_G	1.000
	LGO_G	1.000			

Convergent validity

To meet convergent validity, redundancy analysis is used, which requires the path coefficient linking the two constructs to be greater than 0.70 (Sarstedt et al., 2013). Figure 9.1 shows that the path coefficients of the two formative measurement models are 0.748 and 0.873 respectively. Because both path coefficients are greater than 0.70, the convergent validity of the formative measurement models is confirmed.

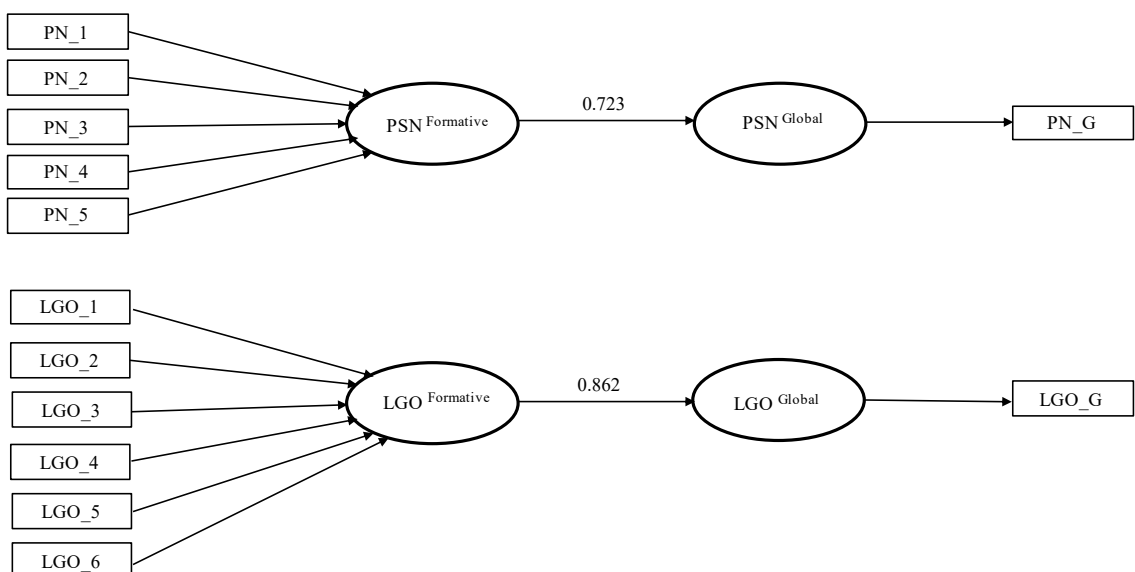


Figure 9.1 Formative measurement models

Significance and relevance of outer weights

The final step of the formative measurement model assessment is testing of the indicators' significance and relevance by Bootstrapping (Hair et al., 2012); the results of this are presented in Table 9.9. It is indicated by this Table that the outer weights of LGO_4, LGO_5, and PN_4 are not significant. However, Hair et al., (2017) contend that when a formative indicator's outer weight is not significant, it is necessary to analyse this indicator's outer loading, which should be greater than 0.50. After testing outer loadings by Bootstrapping, the results show the outer loadings of LGO_4, LGO_5, and PN_4 are 0.847, 0.786, and 0.735 respectively, which are greater than 0.50. Therefore, three indicators can be retained. With verification of the reflective formative measurement models, the author was able to assess the structural model.

Table 9.9: Significance and relevance of outer weights

Constructs	Indicators	Outer weights	Outer loadings	t values	p values
LGO	LGO_1	0.178	0.883	24.904	0.048*
	LGO_2	0.358	0.935	45.229	0.000**
	LGO_3	0.192	0.921	37.402	0.043*
	LGO_4	0.161	0.847	24.791	0.059 n's.
	LGO_5	0.056	0.786	17.334	0.397 n's.
	LGO_6	0.174	0.861	27.560	0.026**
	LGO_G	1.000	1.000		
PSN	PN_1	0.335	0.822	18.042	0.000**
	PN_2	0.253	0.757	16.217	0.001**
	PN_3	0.233	0.840	19.199	0.036*
	PN_4	0.061	0.735	11.669	0.578 n's.
	PN_5	0.344	0.850	21.674	0.000**
	PN_G	1.000	1.000		

**p<0.01, *p<0.05, n's. p>0.05

9.3 The structural model assessment

The function of the structural model is to test the relationships between exogenous and endogenous constructs (Chin, 2010). The aim of the structural model assessment is to test the study's hypotheses. Figure 9.2 presents the proposed theoretical model. According to Hair et al., (2017), assessment of the structural model consists of five steps: collinearity, coefficient of determination R^2 , effect size f^2 , blindfolding, and significance and relevance of path coefficients.

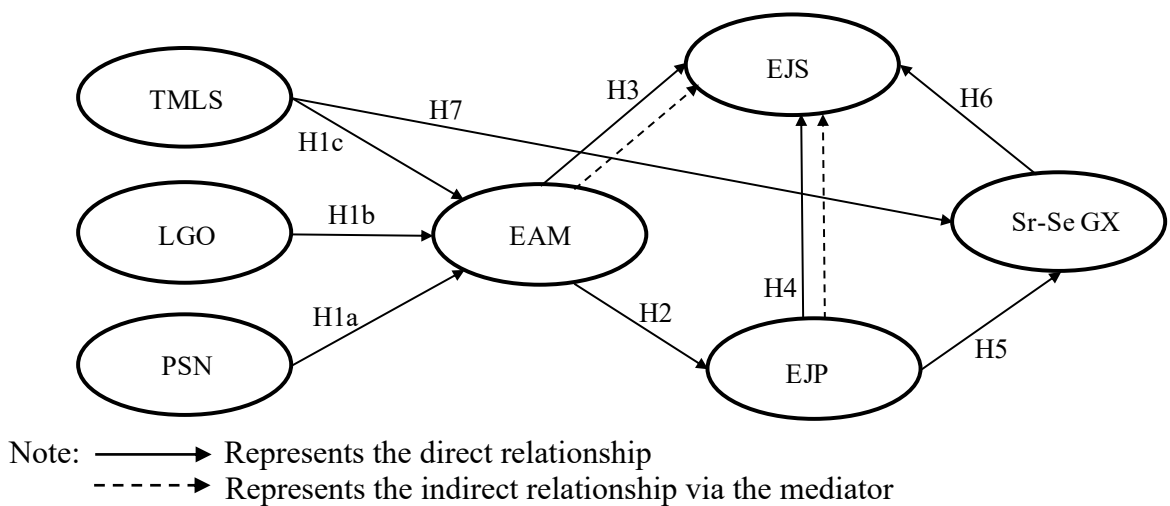


Figure 9.2 Updated theoretical model

9.3.1 Collinearity

The measure used to assess the collinearity of the structural model is the same as the assessment of collinearity for the formative measurement model, in which all VIF values are required to be less than five (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988; Chin, 1998). Table 9.10 demonstrates that all values of VIF are below the threshold of five, therefore there are no collinearity issues in the structural model.

Table 9.10: Collinearity assessment of the structural model

	EAM	EJP	Sr-Se GX	EJS
TMLS	1.523		1.463	
LGO	2.397			
EAM		1.000		1.595
EJP			1.463	1.718
PSN	2.442			
Sr-Se GX				1.503

9.3.2 Coefficient of determination (R^2 value)

The coefficient of determination (R^2 value) plays a critical role in the assessment of the structural model (Wong, 2016). According to Sarstedt et al., (2014), R^2 predicts the likelihood that an endogenous construct is explained by all of its linked exogenous constructs. Rules of thumb indicate that R^2 values of 0.25, 0.50, and 0.75 represent weakly-, moderately-, and substantially-predictive accuracy, respectively (Hair et al., 2011). In short, the higher level of R^2 value indicates that this endogenous construct can be more accurately predicted by its linked exogenous constructs.

Table 9.11: Coefficient of determination (R^2 value)

Construct	R^2
EAM	0.602
EJP	0.330
Sr-Se GX	0.547
EJS	0.621

In the study, there are four endogenous constructs: employee motivation, employee job performance, Sr-Se guanxi, and employee job satisfaction, Table 9.11 shows that employee autonomous motivation, Sr-Se guanxi, and employee job satisfaction have R^2 values above moderate level, and only one construct has an R^2 value between weak and moderate. Therefore, the R^2 values of all constructs are satisfactory.

9.3.3 Effect size f^2

Effect size f^2 evaluates the extent to which an exogenous construct explains a specific endogenous construct with regard to R^2 (Hair et al., 2014; Wong, 2016). The effect size f^2 is calculated as $f^2 = (R^2_{\text{included}} - R^2_{\text{excluded}}) / (1 - R^2_{\text{included}})$, in which $R^2_{\text{included}} - R^2_{\text{excluded}}$ are the values of R^2 in an endogenous construct as a chosen exogenous construct is included or excluded from the structural model (Hair et al., 2014). According to the rules of thumb, f^2 values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 represent a weak, moderate, and strong effect of an exogenous construct on a certain endogenous construct (Cohen, 1988). When the f^2 value is smaller than 0.02, no effect is indicated (Cohen, 1988). Table 9.12 shows f^2 values and the effects of all structural effects.

Table 9.12: Effect size f^2

Structural path	f^2 value	Effect
TMLS→EAM	0.081	Weak
TMLS→Sr-Se GX	0.568	Strong
LGO→EAM	0.001	No effect
EAM→EJP	0.492	Strong
EAM→EJS	0.144	Weak
EJP→Sr-Se GX	0.056	Weak
EJP→EJS	0.065	Weak
PSN→EAM	0.386	Strong
Sr-Se GX→EJS	0.344	Strong

Although there are four f^2 values with weak effects, this does not illustrate that existing exogenous constructs have an insignificant effect on endogenous constructs or the relationship between endogenous and exogenous constructs. This is because f^2 measures whether exogenous constructs which are omitted have a significant impact on endogenous constructs (Hair et al., 2017). For example, the research of Chen and Huang (2018) shows that there are numerous f^2 values with weak effects, but the results of the relationships between endogenous and exogenous constructs are not weak. According to Table 9.12,

the f^2 value of the structural path between LGO and EAM is smaller than 0.02. It is shown that deleting the construct LGO from the model does not have a significant impact on the construct EM, if the construct LGO is not significantly related to EM. This result is analysed in Table 9.3.5.

9.3.4 Blindfolding

Q^2 values, which show the predictive relevance of endogenous constructs in the structural model, are calculated by blindfolding (Hair et al., 2011). To confirm the predictive relevance of the structural model, Q^2 values are required to be larger than zero (Henseler et al., 2009; Sarstedt et al., 2014). Table 9.13 demonstrates that all Q^2 values are greater than zero, therefore the predictive relevance of the structural model is satisfactory.

Table 9.13: Q^2 values

Endogenous constructs	Q^2 values
EAM	0.548
EJP	0.209
Sr-Se GX	0.342
EJS	0.426

9.3.5 Significance and relevance of path coefficients

The final step is to test the significance and relevance of path coefficients by running Bootstrapping, which is a key part of hypotheses testing (Chin, 1998; Sarstedt et al., 2014). Normally, the p value is assumed as a significant level at 5%, which means that the p value should be less than 0.05 to confirm the significance of the relationships (Hair et al., 2017). This study conforms to this assumption. Assessment of the relevance of significant relationships, which is conducted after testing the significance of the relationships, is also critical (Hair et al., 2017). The larger the path coefficient, the greater the effect is on the

endogenous construct (Wong, 2016). However, if the path coefficient is between 0 and 0.1, the relationship between the two constructs is considered very weak (Hair et al., 2011; Wetzels et al., 2009).

Table 9.14: Significance and relevance of the path coefficients

Structural path	Path coefficients	t values	p values
TMLS→EAM	0.221	3.924	0.000**
TMLS→Sr-Se GX	0.614	14.319	0.000**
LGO→EAM	0.025	0.390	0.697 n's.
PSN→EAM	0.612	8.949	0.000**
EAM→EJP	0.574	10.996	0.000**
EAM→EJS	0.295	5.280	0.000**
EJP→EJS	0.206	3.325	0.001**
EJP→Sr-Se GX	0.192	3.880	0.000**
Sr-Se GX→EJS	0.443	8.396	0.000**

**p<0.01, *p<0.05, n's. p>0.05

Table 9.14 presents the results of significance and relevance of the path coefficients. The relationship between learning goal orientation and employee autonomous motivation is not significant ($p=0.697>0.05$), while others are significant ($p=0.000$ or 0.001) and not weak (path coefficients >0.1). As previously noted, the f^2 value of the relationship between learning goal orientation and employee autonomous motivation represents no effect, therefore deleting the construct of learning goal orientation from the model hardly impacts on the construct of employee autonomous motivation.

9.4 Hypotheses testing

9.4.1 Hypothesis 1a

Hypothesis 1a, which proposes the positive relationship between personality and employee autonomous motivation, is supported (coefficient=0.612, $t=8.949$,

$p=0.000<0.05$). This strong relationship implies that employees with the highest levels of conscientiousness, emotional stability, agreeableness, extroversion, and openness to experience can be more autonomously motivated. In other words, personality is a key factor which influences employees' psychological autonomy at work in IHCs, which is embedded in a service-oriented industry.

The theory of purposeful work behaviour advanced by Barrick et al., (2013), proposes that the 'Big Five' dimensions of personality indirectly impact on employee autonomous motivation. This study extends their research through testing the direct relationship between 'Big Five' dimensions and employee autonomous motivation. In previous studies (e.g. Barrick et al., 2001; Chiaburu et al., 2011; Harris and Fleming, 2017), five dimensions of personality were analysed in order to confirm their relationships with employee motivation for certain behaviours. Although conscientiousness is normally confirmed to have a strongly-positive relationship with employee motivation for desirable performance, different types of job performance are linked to different dimensions of personality (Arnold et al., 2016; Chiaburu et al., 2011). For example, openness to experience contributes to performance in terms of creativity (Chang and Teng, 2017). In short, all dimensions of the 'Big Five' are important for employee motivation, therefore the 'Big Five' dimensions of personality are considered as a driver for employee motivation, and constitute the formative measurement model for the study. Further, the study's results indicate that personality is the strongest driver of employee autonomous motivation.

8.4.2 Hypothesis 1b

Hypothesis 1b, which proposes the positive relationship between learning goal orientation and employee autonomous motivation, is rejected (coefficient=0.025, $t=0.390$,

$p=0.697>0.05$). It is indicated that setting a learning goal which is challenging, and contributes to job performance in the immediate term, plays an insignificant role in the autonomous motivation of employees working at IHCs.

This result is inconsistent with those of previous studies (e.g. Button et al., 1996; Kim and Lee, 2013; Locke and Latham, 2002; Seijts and Latham, 2005; Seijts and Latham, 2012) which demonstrate the importance of learning goal orientation in employee motivation. These studies also emphasise the impact of learning goal orientation on employee motivation rather than employee autonomous motivation; this explains why the results of this study do not resonate with those of these previous studies. As previously shown, 63.6% of respondents ($n=195$) have three or fewer years of service. These respondents need some time to adapt to their work environment; at the initial stage of employment, completion of work tasks may be their priority. Therefore, they may be more influenced by performance goal orientation than learning goal orientation. Although Locke and Latham (2002) point out that learning goal orientation is more desirable to effectively motivate employees, Button et al., (1996) argue that performance goal orientation and learning goal orientation are not mutually exclusive, and take place in different aspects and situations.

9.4.3 Hypothesis 1c

Hypothesis 1c, which proposes the positive relationship between transformational leadership and employee autonomous motivation, is supported (coefficient=0.221, $t=3.924$, $p=0.000<0.01$). This result indicates that leaders' caring, communication, empowerment, inspiration, personality, and recognition are significant for subordinates to be effectively and autonomously motivated in the workplace.

This finding resonates with Li et al., (2012), Lyu et al., (2016), Ling et al., (2017), and Qin et al., (2014) who demonstrate that leadership has a significant impact on employees in the Chinese hotel industry. Further, this study focuses on transformational leadership, which plays a role in autonomously motivating employees (Arnold et al., 2016). The study's outcomes, which demonstrate that transformational leadership contributes to employee motivation, are consistent with the research of Brown and Arendt (2011), Carless et al., (2000) and Chang and Teng (2017).

This study also extends the work of Chang and Teng (2017), which considers transformational leadership as extrinsic motivation. As previously noted, self-determination theory contends that extrinsic motivation varies in relation to degrees of autonomy degree (Gagne and Deci, 2005; Ryan and Deci, 2000). Because transformational leadership develops personal willingness and determination for a certain purpose or behaviour (Arnold et al., 2016), it is valid to regard this as autonomous motivation.

9.4.4 Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2, which proposes a positive relationship between employee autonomous motivation and employee job performance, is supported (coefficient=0.574, $t=10.996$, $p=0.000<0.05$). This strongly-positive relationship indicates that employees who feel that they have a high level of psychological autonomy or self-determination in the workplace give good job performance in IHCs.

This result accords with the findings of previous studies (Chang and Teng, 2017; Dipietro et al., 2014; Hon and Chan, 2013a; Wang, 2016) which demonstrate that employee motivation is positively related to good employee job performance in IHCs. The study's

findings, which identify the strong relationship between employee autonomous motivation and employee job performance, are consistent with self-determination theory. As previously noted, self-determination theory proposes that the extent to which autonomous motivation leads to desirable performance is high, because it consists of self-expression and self-consistency (Gagné and Deci, 2005). This result therefore reflects self-determination theory.

9.4.5 Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3, which proposes a positive relationship between employee autonomous motivation and employee job satisfaction, is supported (coefficient=0.295, $t=5.280$, $p=0.000<0.01$). The result indicates that employees who feel higher levels of workplace autonomy or self-determination are more satisfied with their jobs in IHCs.

This result supports the view that employee motivation is linked to employee job satisfaction (Ambrose and Kulik, 1999; Herzberg, 1966; Sledge et al., 2008). In the hotel industry, numerous researchers consider external needs (e.g. pay) as primary motivator for employee job satisfaction (Amissah et al., 2016; Breiter et al., 2002; Dermody et al., 2004; Dipietro et al., 2014; Kuang, 2013; Qiu et al., 2015; Wu and Wang, 2008; Yang, 2014). However, this study's findings, which demonstrate the positive relationship between employee autonomous motivation and employee job satisfaction, emphasise the importance of autonomy and the internal need for employee job satisfaction. This is consistent with self-determination theory, which holds that internalisation of external regulation and need is supportive of the development of employees' positive attitudes in the workplace (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Gagné and Deci, 2005; Ryan and Deci, 2000). The study's findings demonstrate that employee autonomous motivation not only influences employee job performance, but also impacts employee job satisfaction. This is consistent

with Adeola and Adebisi (2016) and Ambrose and Kulik (1999), who describe employee motivation as positively related to both employee job performance and satisfaction.

9.4.6 Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4, which proposes the positive relationship between employee job performance and employee job satisfaction, is supported (coefficient=0.206, $t=3.325$, $p=0.001<0.01$). The result indicates that enhancement of job performance contributes to job satisfaction for the employees of IHCs in China.

A review of relevant literature in the field of hospitality shows that numerous studies focus on the extent to which job satisfaction contributes to job performance (Aksu and Aktas, 2005; Gu and Siu, 2009; Fisher et al., 2010; Karatepe, 2012; Yeh, 2013). However, one of the six possible relationships between job performance and satisfaction described by Judge et al. (2001), which is job performance leading to job satisfaction, remains rare in previous research into the hotel industry. The study's result therefore supports the statement that good job performance leading to job satisfaction can be supported in the hotel industry. Further, consistently with Zopiatis et al. (2014), new skills development and advancement are regarded as indicators of employee job satisfaction in this study. Therefore, it is indicated that the delivery of optimal job performance contributes to career development, which in turn enhance the job satisfaction.

9.4.7 Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5, which proposes the positive relationship between employee job performance and Sr-Se guanxi, is supported (coefficient=0.192, $t=3.880$, $p=0.000<0.01$).

It implies that enhancement of job performance provides a valid method for employees to develop positive guanxi with their superiors/supervisors in IHCs.

The study's result resonates with the research of Yang and Lau (2015) which indicates that employees who complete work tasks efficiently are able to obtain the trust of supervisors, which is the key element for the development of the positive guanxi with supervisors. A review of relevant literature shows that numerous studies consider guanxi as an antecedent rather than an outcome (Cheung et al., 2009; Hom and Xiao, 2011; Li et al., 2016; Mejia et al., 2018; Teng et al., 2012). This study, which explains a measure to develop a positive guanxi in the workplace, fills this research gap.

9.4.8 Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6, which proposes the positive relationship between Sr-Se guanxi and employee job satisfaction, is supported (coefficient=0.443, $t=8.396$, $p=0.000<0.01$). The finding implies that development of a positive guanxi with superiors/supervisors contributes to the improvement of job satisfaction for the staff of IHCs.

This result is consistent with Cheung et al., (2009), who demonstrate that employees having positive guanxi with their supervisors have higher levels of self-esteem and better career development, which contribute to the improvement of job satisfaction. In the field of hospitality research, Yang and Lau (2015) confirm that development of positive guanxi with supervisors led to employees' career success in the Chinese hotel industry. As previously noted, career success is considered to be an indicator of employee job satisfaction for the purposes of this study, therefore the study's findings appear to resonate with those of Yang and Lau (2015).

However, the study contradicts the research findings of Mejia et al., (2018) who demonstrated no positive relationship between guanxi and employee job satisfaction in the Chinese hotel industry. This different result could be because the research of Mejia et al., (2018) divided guanxi into guanxi outside the workplace (personal relationship) and guanxi in the workplace (professional relationship), however this study supports the idea that guanxi is formed and developed during both working and non-working time (Cheung et al., 2009).

9.4.9 Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7, which proposes the positive relationship between transformational leadership and Sr-Se Guanxi, is supported (coefficient=0.614, $t=14.319$, $p=0.000<0.01$). It also shows the strongest relationship of all structural paths in the model. Therefore, the study's results demonstrate that leaders' caring, communication, empowerment, inspiration, personality, and recognition are significant for the development of Sr-Se guanxi in IHCs.

As supervisors are the stakeholders of Sr-Se guanxi, development of positive Sr-Se guanxi may not unilaterally depend on subordinates. Instead, supervisors' positive impacts on subordinates are also as a key element of the establishment of positive guanxi (Taormina and Gao, 2010). Han and Altman (2009) report that supervisors' support, care, and personality are the significant elements of Sr-Se guanxi, and this study's results resonate with their research. In other words, transformational leadership behaviours support supervisors' willingness to develop Sr-Se guanxi. Transformational leadership behaviours enable subordinates to become emotionally attached to their supervisors and thereby enhance their subordinates' trust in them (Arnold et al., 2016; Duan et al., 2015). When subordinates have emotional attachment to, and trust in, their supervisors, they

have high levels of willingness to develop positive guanxi with them. Therefore, transformational leadership enables both parties (supervisors and subordinates) to be willing to develop positive guanxi. Overall, apart from Hypothesis 1b, the others are accepted. Table 9.15 displays the summary of hypotheses testing (direct relationships).

Table 9.15: Summary of hypotheses testing (direct relationships)

No.	Hypothesis	Result
H1a	Personality is positively related to employee autonomous motivation.	Accepted
H1b	Learning goal orientation is positively related to employee autonomous motivation.	Rejected
H1c	Transformational leadership is positively related to employee autonomous motivation.	Accepted
H2	Employee autonomous motivation is positively related to employee job performance.	Accepted
H3	Employee autonomous motivation is positively related to employee job satisfaction.	Accepted
H4	Employee job performance is positively related to employee job satisfaction.	Accepted
H5	Employee job performance is positively related to Sr-Se guanxi.	Accepted
H6	Sr-Se guanxi is positively related to employee job satisfaction.	Accepted
H7	Transformational leadership is positively related to Sr-Se guanxi.	Accepted

9.5 Mediation analysis

The study has presented the direct effect of exogenous constructs on endogenous constructs. According to Sarstedt et al. (2014), the indirect effect can occur when a mediator is involved. In the study, there are two forms of indirect effect. One is the mediating effect of employee job performance on the relationship between employee autonomous motivation and employee job satisfaction: the indirect effect can be calculated as $0.574 (EAM \rightarrow EJP) * 0.206 (EJP \rightarrow EJS) = 0.118$. The other is the mediating effect of S-S guanxi on the relationship between employee job performance and satisfaction: the indirect effect can be calculated as: $0.192 (EJP \rightarrow Sr-Se GX) * 0.443 (Sr-Se GX \rightarrow EJS) = 0.085$.

According to (Hair et al., 2017), the total effect is the sum of the indirect effect and all direct effects. Therefore, the total effect of employee autonomous motivation on employee job satisfaction is calculated as 0.295 (direct effect) + 0.118 (indirect effect) = 0.413 , while the total effect of employee job performance on job satisfaction is calculated as 0.206 (direct effect) + 0.085 (indirect effect) = 0.291 .

As presented above, the total effect of two structural paths is stronger than the direct effect, so assessment of the mediating effect should be considered. “A mediator is a variable that accounts for all or part of the relationship between a predictor and an outcome” (Baron and Kenny, 1986, p. 1176). The study’s analysis of mediating effects refers to Hair et al., (2017), who indicate that the significance of direct and indirect effect determined the mediating role. Table 9.16 shows the specific explanations of different types of mediation:

Table 9.16: Mediating effects

Types of mediation	Explanations
No mediation	(1) Neither direct nor indirect effects are significant. The theoretical model is invalid; or (2) Direct effect is significant, but indirect effect is not.
Complementary mediation (partial mediation)	Both direct and indirect effects are significant, and from the same direction.
Competitive mediation (partial mediation)	Both direct and indirect effects are significant but from opposite directions.
Indirect-only mediation (full mediation)	Indirect effect is significant, but direct effect is not.

Source: adapted from Hair et al. (2017)

According to Table 9.16, mediation is complementary, while both direct and indirect effects are significant and from the same direction. Table 9.17 indicates that both the direct and indirect effects of employee autonomous motivation on job satisfaction are significant and positive. Therefore, the complementary mediating effect of employee job

performance on the relationship between employee autonomous motivation and employee job satisfaction is confirmed.

Mediation not only strengthened the total effect of the relationship between employee autonomous motivation and employee job satisfaction, but also explained the relationships between employee autonomous motivation, employee job performance, and job satisfaction in extended form. The result of this mediation is consistent with the view of Judge et al. (2001) that one of the possible relationships between employee job performance and satisfaction is that job performance is a mediator of the relationship between employee job satisfaction and another construct.

Table 9.17: Mediation test by Bootstrapping

	Mediator	Direct effect		Indirect effect		Mediation
		Coefficient	p value	Coefficient	p value	
EAM→EJS	EJP	0.295	0.000**	0.118	0.001*	Complementary mediation
EJP→EJS	Sr-Se GX	0.206	0.000**	0.085	0.000*	Complementary mediation

**p<0.01, *p<0.05

Table 9.17 also shows that both the direct and indirect effects of employee job performance on job satisfaction are significant and positive, therefore the relationship between employee job performance and job satisfaction is complementarily mediated by Sr-Se guanxi. This mediation not only strengthens the total effect of the relationship between employee job performance and satisfaction, but also extends the explanations of how and why employee job performance contributes to job satisfaction. Further, this result indicates that development of positive guanxi is also important for IHCs located in the Chinese environment, even though these IHCs belong to multinational groups.

The study's findings resonate with those of Yang and Lau (2015), who demonstrated that guanxi mediates the relationship between job performance and career success in the Chinese hotel industry. As previously noted, career success is considered part of employee job satisfaction for the purposes of this study. In this respect, this study extends the research of Yang and Lau (2015). Combining mediation analysis with the previous assessment of direct relationships (H1-H7), the theoretical model, titled 'EEMPS and Sr-Se GX' model¹, is finalised and shown in Figure 9.3:

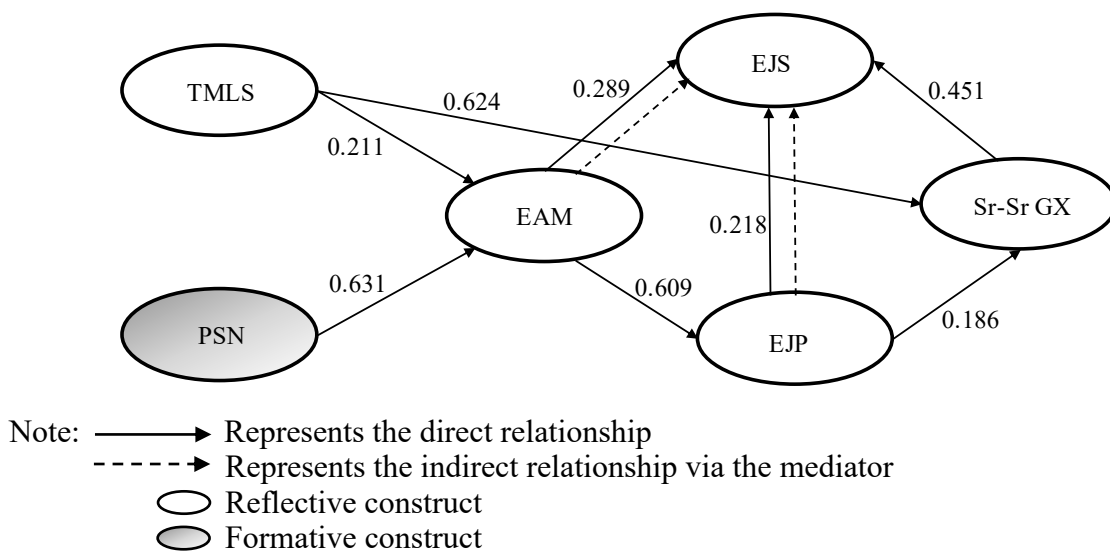


Figure 9.3 'EEMPS and Sr-Se GX' model

9.6 Conclusion

In order to meet the aim of assessment of the relationships between employee autonomous motivation, employee job performance, and satisfaction at IHCs in China, this Chapter statistically tests the proposed theoretical model and hypotheses. PLS-SEM was employed to test and assess the measurement models and the structural model. The assessment's results showed that reflective and formative measurement models satisfied the requirements of validity and reliability, and the power of the structural model was adequately predictive.

The study's results revealed the following constructs' relationships, and finalised the theoretical model, entitled 'EEMPS and Sr-Se GX'. Firstly, personality and transformational leadership were drivers of employee autonomous motivation, which in turn contributed to employee job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China. Secondly, employees with good job performance were able to enhance their job satisfaction and the development of Sr-Se guanxi. Transformational leadership was confirmed as having a strong and positive impact on Sr-Se guanxi, which in turn is related to employee job satisfaction. Finally, mediating effects are confirmed; employee job performance mediated the relationship between employee autonomous motivation and employee job satisfaction, and Sr-Se guanxi mediated the relationship between employee job performance and satisfaction. In conclusion, this Chapter achieves Aim Two. This PhD thesis concludes with the following Chapter, which relates to theoretical and practical implications.

Note: 1. EEMPS and Sr-Se GX stand for employee (EE), motivation (M), performance (P), satisfaction (S), and supervisor-subordinate guanxi (Sr-Se) GX.

Chapter 10 Conclusion and implications

10.1 Introduction

This PhD thesis concludes with this Chapter, which gives the key findings and contributions of the research. This Chapter consists of four Sections. Section One lists the key findings linked to the study's aims and objectives. Section Two presents the theoretical implications. Section Three considers the limitations of the study and directions for future research. The final Section gives practical implications for relevant stakeholders.

10.2 Key findings

This study identified two aims, the first being to propose a theoretical model of the structural relationships among employee autonomous motivation, employee job performance, and satisfaction at international hotel chains (IHCs) IHCs in China, the second to assess the structural relationships among employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at IHCs in China. To address how this study has met the aims, this Section provides the key findings of the relevant research aims and objectives.

10.2.1 To propose a theoretical model of the structural relationships among employee autonomous motivation, employee job performance, and satisfaction at IHCs in China

To provide a general review of employee motivation, the role of autonomy in motivation, job performance and satisfaction in IHCs

After a critical review of the relevant literature, this study identifies that, firstly, staff turnover rates and cross-cultural issues are two principal challenges for IHCs. Good employee job performance and satisfaction require enhancement in order to mitigate these two issues. Secondly, employee motivation is a primary driver of job performance and the improvement of job satisfaction. Autonomous motivation which requires the internalisation of employees' external values and practices is important for employee job performance and satisfaction, however relevant studies of IHCs remain scant. Therefore, this study focuses on autonomous motivation. Thirdly, because of the importance of learning and personality in employee job performance and satisfaction at IHCs, the study considers learning orientation goal and personality as primary motivators.

To provide a review of the development of the Chinese hotel industry and IHCs in China

After review of the relevant literature, this study classifies the development of the Chinese hotel industry into six stages, including the growth of IHCs in China. Table 9.1 presents a summary of the development of the Chinese hotel industry and IHCs in China.

Table 10.1: Summary of the development of the Chinese hotel industry

Stage One (1949-1978)	Tourism was mainly used for the purposes of Chinese political and socialist publicity. There was no presence of IHCs. There were few qualified or highly-skilled staff in the Chinese hotel industry.
Stage Two (1978-1985)	The ‘Open Door’ policy was introduced and implemented. In 1982, the Beijing Jianguo Hotel introduced Peninsula Hong Kong’s management system. This was the first joint-venture hotel in China. Holiday Inn and Sheraton entered China in 1984 and 1985 respectively. Highly-skilled management staff were gradually introduced in China.
Stage Three (1986-1991)	The Seventh Five-year National Plan was introduced, regarding tourism and hospitality as a critical part of Chinese social and economic growth. IHCs’ hotels were mainly distributed in Eastern economic regions at luxury standard, and operated by management contract. Recruitment requirements of IHCs were very high.
Stage Four (1992-2000)	In the early 1992, Deng Xiaoping returned to Southern China, announcing wider economic reform and an ‘open door’ policy. Pay levels in the hotel industry started to be decided by market forces of supply and demand rather than central government. In 2000, nine of the top ten international hotel groups had entered the Chinese market.
Stage Five (2001-2008)	In 2001, China joined the World Trade Organisation (WTO), and levels of Chinese government control over businesses decreased rapidly. International hotel groups increased the pace of their investment in China. IHCs expanded their operations from the Eastern economic region to the Central and Western economic regions. Employee localisation became a key issue for IHCs operating in China.
Stage Six (2008-present)	Since 2008, a series of mega-events have been held in China. Foreign-funded groups (not including Hong Kong, Macao, and Taiwan) in the Chinese hotel industry numbered 203 until 2015. Management contract was still the most common entry mode for IHCs. Employee localisation at this stage was increased by in IHCs operating in China, but recruitment requirements of recruitment were much lower than before.

Source: Adapted from Gross et al. (2013), Huang (2009), Tsang and Hsu (2011), Yu (2006), Zhang et al. (2005), and Zhang et al. (2012)

It is evident that the Chinese hotel industry is undergoing rapid development, and IHCs are expanding from the Eastern region to the Central and Western regions. However, most relevant studies have continued to focus on the Eastern region. Localisation has become a key issue for IHCs in China, but there is a shortage of qualified and/or highly-skilled staff. Therefore, employee job performance requires further improvement.

To provide a review of employee motivation, the role of autonomy in motivation, job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China

Some challenging issues associated with employee job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China have been identified. These are: employee localisation, cross-cultural conflicts, employee turnover rates, and guanxi. A systematic review of employee job performance and satisfaction in the Chinese hotel industry identifies three key research gaps: few studies have conducted research on IHCs in China, few studies have focused on the Central and Western regions, and few studies have employed mixed methods of data collection and analysis. There is no study which assesses the effect of supervisor-subordinate (Sr-Se) guanxi on employee job performance and satisfaction. A systematic review of employee motivation in the hotel industry indicates the three main research gaps: firstly, little research investigates and assesses the effects of autonomous motivation on both employee job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in China, secondly, few studies consider both learning goal orientation and personality as motivators, thirdly, few studies employ the interview method to obtain employees' own thoughts about motivational factors, and fourthly, few studies consider Sr-Se guanxi into the relationships among employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at IHCs in China.

To propose the initial theoretical model in correspondence with literature review

To propose the initial theoretical model of addressing research gaps, a total of seven hypotheses were developed. H1a and H1b were that personality and learning goal orientation were positively-related to employee autonomous motivation. H2 was that employee autonomous motivation was positively-related to employee job performance. H3 was that employee autonomous motivation was positively-related to employee job

satisfaction. H4 was that employee job performance was positively-related to employee job satisfaction. H5 was that employee job performance was positively-related to Sr-Se guanxi. H6 was that Sr-Se guanxi was positively-related to employee job satisfaction. There were two additional hypotheses regarding mediating effects: that employee job performance mediates the relationship between employee autonomous motivation and that Sr-Se guanxi mediates the relationship between employee job performance and employee job satisfaction. In the initial theoretical model, there were therefore two antecedents (learning goal orientation and personality), one process (employee autonomous motivation), two outcomes (employee job performance and satisfaction), and two mediators (employee job performance, and Sr-Se guanxi).

To update the theoretical model through interviews

To provide practical support for the development of the theoretical model, 31 interviews were conducted. According to the analysis of the interview data, the theoretical model was updated. Transformational leadership was added as an antecedent to the theoretical model. In this regard, the author added H1c (transformational leadership is positively-related to employee autonomous motivation) and H7 (transformational leadership was related to S-S guanxi).

10.2.2 To assess the structural relationships among employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction at IHCs in China

To assess the influences of demographic profiles on employee autonomous motivation, employee job performance and satisfaction

Regarding employee autonomous motivation, groups from various regions, positions and lengths of service in years showed statistically significant differences. In terms of overall job performance, groups from different job positions and varying lengths of service in years showed statistically significant differences. In relation to overall job satisfaction, groups from different departments, regions, job positions and lengths of service in years showed statistically significant differences.

With the aim of filling the research gap which existed due to the fact that little research has analysed the differences between different regions and job positions in relation to employee autonomous motivation, employee job performance and satisfaction in the Chinese hotel industry, the study shows that respondents from the Western region were more autonomously motivated to work, and more satisfied in their present work roles, than those from the Chinese Eastern regions. Further, the study proved that department managers and directors were more autonomously motivated in the workplace than non-supervisory employees, who had lower overall job satisfaction than department managers, while department managers had stronger overall job performance than non-supervisory employees and supervisors.

To assess the direct relationships within the theoretical model

The study firstly confirmed that personality and transformational leadership were drivers of employee autonomous motivation. Secondly, employee autonomous motivation was shown to directly contribute to employee job performance and satisfaction through both personality and transformational leadership. Thirdly, employee job performance and transformational leadership were helpful for the development of positive Sr-Se guanxi. Finally, employee job performance and Sr-Se guanxi positively impacted on employee job satisfaction.

To assess the mediation in the theoretical model

Employee job performance and Sr-Se guanxi were two mediators in this study. The mediating effect of employee job performance on the relationship between employee autonomous motivation and employee job satisfaction was confirmed, along with the fact that mediation strengthens the effect of the relationship between employee autonomous motivation and employee job satisfaction. Conclusions about the relationship between employee motivation, job performance, and satisfaction were extended.

The study also confirms that Sr-Se guanxi is a mediator of the relationship between employee job performance and satisfaction. Similarly to its effect as mediator of employee job performance, the mediation not only strengthens the total effect of the relationship between employee job performance and satisfaction, but also extends the explanations of how and why employee job performance contributes to job satisfaction. It also indicates that the development of positive guanxi is important for IHCs operating in the Chinese environment, even though these IHCs belong to multinational groups.

10.3 Theoretical implications

While employee job performance and satisfaction are important for IHCs to retain competitive advantage, particularly at times of strong competition (Amissah et al., 2016; Pan, 2015; Yang, 2010), *guanxi*, as a cultural concept with Chinese characteristics, impacts on every facet of the society and reflects individual social life (Park and Luo, 2001). Therefore, the primary contribution of this study is to provide comprehensive explanations of how employee autonomous motivation impacts on employee job performance and satisfaction, and the role of *guanxi* in the motivational process. Combining the results of qualitative and quantitative data, the specific theoretical implications are listed as follows:

10.3.1 The relationships among pay, career development, and employee job satisfaction

Firstly, this study strengthens the view of two-factor theory that pay is not a motivator for employee job satisfaction at IHCs in China; instead, it is a hygiene factor which prevents dissatisfaction. Previous studies (Amissah et al., 2016; Breiter et al., 2002; Dermody et al., 2004; Dipietro et al., 2014; Kuang, 2013; Qiu et al., 2015; Wu and Wang, 2008; Yang, 2014) considered pay as a primary motivator, because low pay is a current challenging issue for the Chinese hotel industry. However, different types of hotels (e.g. international and domestic hotels) may experience situations differently. When conducting research in IHCs, this study contradicted the findings of these studies.

Secondly, career development is a motivator for employee job satisfaction, which also supports the two-factor theory. According to Yang (2010), Zopiatis et al., (2014), Chiang and Birtch (2010), and Groch (2015), studies which measure job satisfaction have not

normally included consideration of career development. Therefore, this study extends the scope of indicators in order to measure job satisfaction by consideration of indicators relating to career development as indicators. Achievement of promotion and skill development goals were included as indicators in the construct 'employee job satisfaction'. It is suggested that overall employee job satisfaction, enjoyment and interest in the workplace, and career development should all be used as indicators for the measurement of job satisfaction.

10.3.2 The relationships among employee autonomous motivation, employee job performance, and satisfaction

As personality and transformational leadership are found to be autonomous motivators, the study provides an update on how to autonomously motivate employees in the improvement of their job performance and satisfaction levels. Because IHCs are embedded into service-oriented industry and multinational groups, conscientiousness, emotional stability, agreeableness, extroversion, and openness to experience are all important for service quality delivery. The study's results therefore demonstrate the strong relationship between personality and employee autonomous motivation at IHCs. Confirmation of the direct relationship between personality and employee autonomous motivation additionally extends the research of Barrick et al. (2013) which described the indirect relationship between the five elements of personality and employee motivation. According to qualitative and quantitative research, this study proposes and tests the role of transformational leadership in employee autonomous motivation. As these results confirm, the study extends the rationale on how leadership leads to employee motivation. Leadership and personality are autonomous motivators for the purposes of the study, therefore the results can also be seen as indicative that the roles of leadership and personality internalise employees' external regulations and values for the development of

positive behaviours and attitudes, which resonates with self-determination theory (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Gagné and Deci, 2005; Ryan and Deci, 2000).

The study's results demonstrate that employees can be autonomously motivated to enhance their standards of job performance and satisfaction. It specifically explains the view of self-determination theory that autonomous motivation is linked to behaviours and attitudes (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Gagné and Deci, 2005; Ryan and Deci, 2000). Further, the study extends explanations of the relationships between employee autonomous motivation, employee job performance and satisfaction through confirmation that employee job performance mediates the relationship between employee autonomous motivation and employee job satisfaction. The results provide confirmation of the possible relationship by Judge et al. (2001), that employee job performance is a mediator of the relationship between employee job satisfaction and another construct. As this study's results show that employee autonomous motivation has a stronger relationship with employee job performance than with employee job satisfaction, the mediating role promotes the entirety of the effect of the relationship between employee autonomous motivation and employee job satisfaction.

10.3.3. The role of Supervisor-Subordinate guanxi

As there is little research on how Sr-Se guanxi impacts on employees' behaviours and attitudes at IHCs in China, this study fills this research gap through assessment of the relationships between guanxi and transformational leadership, employee job performance and satisfaction. Firstly, the study's results provide comprehensive explanations of what behaviour contributes to the development of a positive guanxi with superiors, and the outcome of a positive guanxi. The study specifically confirms that optimal performance at work and transformational leadership behaviours contribute to the development of a

positive Sr-Se guanxi, which in turn enhances employee job satisfaction. Employee job satisfaction as the outcome of the development of guanxi attempts to extend the research of Yang and Lau (2015), which indicates that a positive Sr-Se guanxi leads to career development. As previously noted, career development is regarded an element of employee job satisfaction in this study.

A review of the relevant literature indicates that numerous studies consider Sr-Se guanxi as an antecedent rather than an outcome (Cheung et al., 2009; Hom and Xiao, 2011; Li et al., 2016; Mejia et al., 2018; Teng et al., 2012). This study fills this research gap by demonstrating that transformational leadership and employee job performance are two primary drivers of the development of Sr-Se guanxi. Additionally, as transformational leadership and employee job performance represent supervisors' and subordinates' behaviours, this study emphasises that the development of positive S-S guanxi depends on mutual effort.

Sr-Se guanxi as the mediator of the relationship between employee job performance and satisfaction not only strengthens the total effect of the relationship between employee job performance and satisfaction, but also gives deeper insight into how and why employee job performance leads to job satisfaction. It provides specific explanations for propositions by Judge et al. (2001) about the possible relationships between job performance and job satisfaction.

10.4 Limitations and future research agendas

Despite its contributions to the body of knowledge, this study has several limitations, which should be considered as directions for future research. Firstly, because there is little quantitative data from the Chinese Central and North-eastern regions, the study confirms

only the significant differences between employee autonomous motivation and employee job satisfaction in the Eastern and Western regions of China. Future research should include data collected from the Central and North-eastern regions of China in order to assess the significant differences between the country's four regions. Obtaining appropriate data from the four regions enables the study to explain employee autonomous motivation more convincingly, along with employee job performance and satisfaction at IHCs in the whole country. Additionally, the research does not include input from any expatriate respondents. In order to explore expatriates' job performance and satisfaction levels at IHCs in China, data supplied by expatriate staff should be included.

The positive relationship between learning goal orientation and employee autonomous motivation at IHCs in China is not confirmed by this study. As stated in some previous studies (e.g. Kim and Lee, 2013; Locke and Latham, 2002; Vansteenkiste et al., 2004), in order to understand the importance of learning goal orientation for motivation, it remains necessary to further test the impacts of learning goal orientation on employee autonomous motivation.

Because personality is considered as one construct in the study, each element of personality represents only one indicator. Further investigation and assessment of how personality influences employee motivation are merited. In particular, each element of personality is encouraged to be considered as an individual construct in order to compare effect size of five dimensions of personality.

The study confirms the mediating role of Sr-Se guanxi and how it directly relates to transformational leadership, employee job performance, and satisfaction; however, this study does not test whether Sr-Se guanxi can be considered as a moderator of the relationship between employee job performance and satisfaction. In other words, it is

worthwhile to investigate and assess whether optimal job performance does not lead to job satisfaction due to the positive Sr-Se guanxi being not developed. Moreover, as expatriates' culture background is different from Chinese, how Sr-Se guanxi influences on those expatriate employees at IHCs in China should be researched in the near future. Meanwhile, whether Sr-Se guanxi is able to be applied into the IHCs within the Western environment is also encouraged to be investigated.

Finally, this study's results of qualitative and quantitative research support the importance of career development for employee job performance and satisfaction, so the future research is encouraged to focus on the feasibility of specific career development planning for each employee at IHCs in China. In particular, the effectiveness of mentorship programmes employed for developing Sr-Se guanxi is worthwhile to be emphasised.

10.5 Reflection

This PhD study provided me, as its author, with many exciting challenges, and it has been the most interesting experience of my life. PhD study has strongly developed my academic skills. I have understood the nature of critical thinking, and I have used the literature review in order to compare the views of previous researchers and to identify research gaps. I have used the discussion section to consider consistencies and inconsistencies of the study with previous research. A particular understanding of inconsistency was necessary, because this influenced the unique contributions of the research. For example, where the study's results were inconsistent with previous studies, a researcher is required to explain this inconsistency. I also understood how the formulation of a systematic review was useful in order to identify research gaps.

Data collection was a challenge for this study. Before I began the data collection process, I thought that this work would be easy, however responses were slow to come in. I received only 150 responses by the end of the first month, which was far below my expectations. I realised that I needed to extend my range of contacts. I contacted some university lecturers who had students working in IHCs, and also visited some international hotels to request an appointment with their HR managers. After three months, I met my target. Although I spent considerable time on data collection, which was a challenging process, I extended my contacts and social networks, which contributed to the data collection process.

Before my PhD study, I had never used statistical analysis software. I believed that it would be one of the most challenging aspects of the process, because I did not think my knowledge of statistics was good. Through using SPSS and Smart-PLS for data analysis, I gradually developed expertise in the use of statistical analysis software. When first using this software, I could only use it for basic calculation (such as descriptive statistics), but I became able to use software for the analysis of mediation and moderation (e.g. hierarchical regression analysis and multi-group analysis).

Academic writing was one of the most important aspects of my PhD study. The process of completion of my PhD study has significantly improved my academic writing skills, enabling me to make direct contributions to conference papers (e.g. Zhang, 2017a; Zhang, 2017b, Zhang, 2018; Zhang, 2019) and journal article publications (e.g. Zhang and Huang, 2019). The paper for publication consists of introduction, literature review, methodology, findings, discussion, implications, and conclusion (including limitations and future research). Implications are the original values of the study, therefore these should be emphasised. It is notable that implications are based on the findings and discussions arising from previously-published literature. Overall, the PhD is not an ending of

academic life, rather it is the start of a more thoughtful and reflective approach to professional life.

10.6 Practical implications

According to the aims, objectives, and review of the results of this study, its practical contributions are relevant to four types of stakeholders: employees, management, the organisational human resources function, and IHCs. The key implications for each of these four stakeholder groups are individually listed below:

10.6.1 Implications for employees

The study's results indicate that employees from the Western region of China are more motivated at work and had higher overall job satisfaction compared to their counterparts from the Eastern region, therefore it is recommended that going to the Western region or migrating from the Eastern region to the Western region for work is attractive for individual development and quality of life. The relatively-advanced economy and numerous branches of IHCs in the Eastern region has attracted many people to seek work in this region, but it causes the highly fierce competition and large living pressure (China, 2009; Li, 2019). High levels of work competition and living pressure may negatively influence some employees' career development and interest in work, which in turn decreases job satisfaction (Lundberg et al., 2009; Yang, 2010; Yang and Lau, 2015). When external competition and living pressure push employees to choose a job which is inconsistent with individual values and beliefs, they are controlled motivated in the workplace; instead, the degree of autonomous motivation for the work is small (Gagné and Deci, 2005; Roche and Haar, 2013; Ryan and Deci, 2000). However, the expansion of IHCs in the Western region has provided favourable opportunities for employees

(Zhang et al., 2012). The smaller levels of living pressure and more favourable opportunities for career development promote individual job satisfaction and reduce external influence on individual work (Gagné and Deci, 2005; Qiu et al., 2015; Ryan and Deci, 2000). Further, relocation to the Western region for work not only alleviates population pressures in the Eastern region, but also contributes to coordinated development between the Eastern and Western regions of the country (China, 2009; Li, 2019).

According to the verification of the relationships among Sr-Se guanxi, employee job performance, and satisfaction, the study suggests that employees should pay attention to both work-centric and off-work-centric behaviours for the enhancement of job satisfaction. Optimal job performance delivery represents employees' work-centric behaviour, while developing a positive guanxi with supervisors is a behaviour off-work-centric (Chen et al., 2009; Cheung et al., 2009; Yang and Lau, 2015). When individuals are not satisfied with the work, they need to consider whether they try the best to deliver good job performance. The optimal job performance delivery is beneficial for employees' career development (including promotion opportunities and professional skills development) and makes individuals tend to like their jobs (Judge et al., 2001). Further, as guanxi still plays an important role in promoting job satisfaction IHCs, employees are suggested to do off-work activities (e.g. visiting the supervisor, sending gifts to the supervisor, doing a favour for the supervisor, and having the dinner with the supervisor) to cultivate affection with their supervisors (Yen et al., 2011). Besides nurturing affection promoting employee job satisfaction, this research exclusively highlights the successful career development is the key indicator of job satisfaction. Although off-work activities contribute to the development of positive Sr-Se guanxi in China (Cheung et al., 2009), good performance at work is the foundation of positive Sr-Se guanxi (Yang and Lau,

2015). The significance of optimal job performance also emphasizes that Sr-Se guanxi should be positive.

The study's results demonstrate the positive relationship between personality and employee autonomous motivation, therefore IHCs' staff need to work with high levels of conscientiousness, emotional stability, agreeableness, extroversion, and openness to experience. This is not only because IHCs are in a service-oriented industry, in which these qualities are required of staff, but also because IHC's advanced management systems require their staff to ongoingly acquire new knowledge and skills, for which an employee needs to be open to new experiences (Chang and Teng, 2017). If employees work with high negative affect (e.g. emotional instability, disagreeableness, or introversion), their psychological well-being will be influenced negatively (Arnold et al., 2016).

10.6.2 Implications for managements

The results of this study's qualitative and quantitative research show the positive relationships between leadership and employee autonomous motivation, job performance, satisfaction, and Sr-Se guanxi, therefore the first recommendation for IHCs' managements is to focus on the impact of transformational leadership. Specifically, leaders' caring, criticism, communication, guidance, character, empowerment, and recognition influence subordinates' willingness and determination to ensure optimal performance delivery and achievement of job satisfaction (Duan et al., 2015; Hon and Lu, 2010; Li et al., 2012; Ling et al., 2017; Qin et al., 2014; Rothfelder et al., 2013; Wong and Li, 2015). Because supervisors are stakeholders in the development of positive Sr-Se guanxi, they cannot passively wait for the development of guanxi through subordinates' endeavour. Transformational leadership behaviours enable subordinates to become

emotionally-connected to, and trusting in, their leaders, which in turn promotes the development of positive Sr-Se guanxi. Although this study collected data from staff at five levels of seniority (non-supervisory employees, supervisors, department managers, director, and general managers), staff at each level are responsible to their own supervisors.

Because the positive relationship between personality and employee autonomous motivation has been demonstrated, the second recommendation for management is to pay attention to the assessment of subordinates' personality from five aspects: conscientiousness, emotional stability, agreeableness, extroversion, and openness to experience. The assessment of personality provides a useful way to predict employees' job performance and satisfaction (Barrick et al., 2001; Chiaburu et al., 2011; Harris and Fleming, 2017). Further, high positive affect contributes to individual psychological well-being (Arnold et al., 2016). Therefore, the management is encouraging to guide employees to cultivate or keep high positive affect at work. If an individual work with the negative affect, the management should enhance communication with him/her.

10.6.3 Implications for the human resource department of IHCs

Because the results of this study's qualitative research indicate that pay is not a primarily influential factor of employee motivation, job performance and satisfaction, it is suggested that the role of pay for both non-supervisory and supervisory employees should not be over-emphasised in IHCs, while basic pay levels should of course be guaranteed. Although low pay is prevalent in the Chinese hotel industry, and increasing pay levels for the improvement of job performance and job satisfaction has been suggested by numerous researchers (Amissah et al., 2016; Breiter et al., 2002; Dermody et al., 2004; Kuang, 2013; Qiu et al., 2015; Wu and Wang, 2008; Yang, 2014), this study's results

demonstrate that pay is only used to prevent dissatisfaction. It is consistent with two-factor theory, indicating pay is a hygiene factor to prevent employees from dissatisfaction. Therefore, it would be beneficial for human resource departments to recognise the differences between satisfaction and dissatisfaction before developing motivational policies.

The results of the qualitative data present the career development's impact on employee motivation, job performance and satisfaction, therefore the author suggests that IHCs should provide favourable career development plans to all staff members. Because employees care about the promotion opportunities available to them (Fisher and McPhail, 2011; Qiu et al., 2015), career development plans need to focus on fairer and more specific procedures for promotion opportunities (Bu and Zhu, 2015; Li, 2011). A fair and specific career development plan enables the development of employees' internal values and regulations linked to job performance, in order to encourage workers' determination when dealing with workplace challenges (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Gagné and Deci, 2005; Ryan and Deci, 2000). To formulate this career development plan, human resource department need to integrate each department's suggestions, as each department has situations differently (Garavan et al., 2006). Further, professional skills growth is also included into career development (Yang and Lau, 2015), so the human resource department in IHCs need to organise distinctive professional training for employees from different departments.

Finally, in terms of the importance of transformational leadership for employee autonomous motivation, employee job performance, and satisfaction, the results of both the qualitative and quantitative research within this study suggests that IHCs' human resources departments should provide more training of transformational leadership. Specifically, it is encouraged to divide training of transformational leadership into several

topics (e.g. vision, employee development, supportive leadership, empowerment, innovative thinking, lead by example, and charisma), as transformation leadership contains different behaviours (Carless et al., 2000).

10.6.4 Implications for international hotel chains

As the results of quantitative research confirm the significant differences of departments, economic regions, job positions, and lengths of service in employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction, it implies no “one-size-fits-all” for organisations’ human resource management (Armstrong and Taylor, 2017). IHCs are encouraged to flexibly adjust strategies to promoted employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and satisfaction in accordance with different conditions. This study also demonstrates that Sr-Se guanxi is linked to employee job performance and satisfaction through its direct and mediating effects. Therefore, the author recommends that IHCs recognise the importance of the development of Sr-Se positive guanxi in China, even though IHCs are multinational companies. Previous studies (e.g. Cheung et al., 2009; Hom and Xiao, 2011; Mejia et al., 2015; Qiu et al., 2014; Qiu et al., 2015; Yang and Lau, 2015) equally highlight the importance of Sr-Se guanxi for the Chinese hotel sector.

Management systems of IHCs are standardised (Qu, 2015; Tian, 2013), and the results of the qualitative research in this study demonstrate that this strength enables IHCs to attract high-quality staff. As career development is confirmed by the findings of this study to be a significant outcome of the standard management systems of IHCs, it is suggested that IHCs further focus on individual career development in order to attract and retain highly-skilled staff, in the highly-competitive environment of the Chinese hotel industry. Apart from authorizing and monitoring human resource department to formulate fair opportunities for promotion and a clear career schedule (Bu and Zhu, 2015; Li, 2011),

IHCs are suggested to support the establishment of positive guanxi between subordinates and supervisors for individual career development through the confirmation of the relationships between transformational leadership, Sr-Se guanxi, employee job performance, and satisfaction. A credible way for IHCs supporting the establishment of positive Sr-Se guanxi is to develop mentorship programmes, which aim to cultivate mutual affection and trust (Garavan et al., 2006). In mentorship programmes, transformational leadership' behaviours should be encouraging, and supervisors are suggested to frequently care and communicate with subordinate in relation to work and non-work issues (Yang and Lau, 2015). Subordinates are expected to become emotionally-connected to and trusting in their supervisors through mentorship programmes (Chen et al., 2009). Additionally, subordinates are recommended to master the expertise of communication originated from the Confucius ethics (Chinese traditional culture), such as respecting and greeting supervisors (Yang and Lau, 2015). They are also encouraged to understand the fundamental role of the optimal job performance delivery in the development of Sr-Se guanxi through mentorship programme.

Appendices

Appendix A: Ethical approval for qualitative research



Ref: FREC1617.53
Date: 7 August, 2017

Dear Jinhua

Ethical Approval Application No: FREC1617.53
Title: An investigation of employee motivation in international hotel chains operation in China

The Faculty Research Ethics Committee, has considered the ethical approval form and is fully satisfied that the project complies with Plymouth University's ethical standards for research involving human participants.

Approval is for the duration of the project. However, please resubmit your application to the committee if the information provided in the form alters or is likely to alter significantly.

We would like to wish you good luck with your research project.

Yours sincerely

(Sent as email attachment)

Dr James Benhin
Chair
Faculty Research Ethics Committee
Faculty of Business

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Appendix B: Semi-structured interview schedule

Introduction

- (1) Introduce the researcher, research aims and objectives;
- (2) Talk through register sheet and informed consent form;
- (3) Explain any queries on the two forms;
- (4) Check whether the interviewee is happy to be recoded; If not, the researcher takes notes instead;
- (5) Invite the interviewee to complete and register sheet and informed consent form;
- (6) Start to interview

The interview

- (1) Record the conversation, if applicable;
- (2) Talk through the core questions;
- (3) Invite further questions.

Ending and debriefing

- (1) Highlight anonymity, confidentiality, and interviewee's information stored securely;
- (2) Thank interviewee's participation in this research.

Appendix C: Informed consent form for qualitative research



Informed Consent Form

Research topic

An investigation of employee motivation in international hotel chains operation in China

Basic information about the research and the researcher

The researcher's name is Jinhua Zhang, PhD student at Plymouth University, and he is undertaking some interviews as the first stage research of the PhD studying. The aim of the PhD project is to investigate how to enhance employee's work performance and job satisfaction of international hotel chains operation in China by motivation measures. Interviewing is the supporting method of the research to test the rationality of the conceptual framework set up through literature review.

What do I have to do?

You can take part in the study by completing an interview. It includes questions about your personal experience in the workplace.

Can I withdraw from the research?

You can withdraw anytime during the research. To withdraw from the research, please contact the researcher via the contact details below.

Will my taking part be confidential?

The research will ensure your confidentiality during the conduct and reporting of the research. You will be allocated a pseudonym in any discussion of interview data. Furthermore, the reports of this research are only used in the PhD thesis of the researcher and publications of academic journals.

Contact information

If you would like further information about the research, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher via email:

Mr Jinhua Zhang (jinhua.zhang@plymouth.ac.uk)

Agreement:

☐

I have read and understand the information sheet and the conditions of this project. I have read and understand what you want me to do for this study, and my right to withdraw. I hereby voluntarily agree to participate in this project. I may withdraw my consent at any time before or during an interview without penalty.

Name of Participant:

Signature:

Date:

Appendix D: Register sheet for interviewees (template)

Number	Gender	Hotel	Department	Level of position

Appendix E: Core questions for Semi-structured interviews

1. What characteristics motivated you to seek work in IHCs?
2. What primarily motivates you to work in IHCs?
3. Please indicate your overall level of job performance with your current employer/hotel?
4. What primary factors do you think are important to enhance your job performance?
5. Please indicate your overall level of job satisfaction with your current employer/hotel?
6. What primary factors do you think are important to enhance your job satisfaction?

Appendix F: Ethical approval for quantitative research



Date: 01 June 2018

Dear Jinhua,

Ethical Approval Application No: FREIC1718.26
Title: Employee motivation, job performance, and satisfaction of international hotel chains in China

Thank you for your application to the Faculty Research Ethics & Integrity Committee (FREIC) seeking ethical approval for your proposed research.

The members of the Committee were in agreement that this was generally a well presented application with most potential issues carefully addressed. We are therefore happy to approve your application.

We would however strongly recommend that survey instruments and consent form must be carefully proofread to correct any grammatical errors before they are circulated to participants.

Approval is for the duration of the project. However, please resubmit your application to the committee if the information provided in the form alters or is likely to alter significantly.

The FREIC members wish you every success with your research.

Yours sincerely
(Sent as email attachment)

Dr James Benhin
Chair
Faculty Research Ethics & Integrity Committee
Faculty of Business

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Appendix G: Informed consent form for quantitative research



Informed Consent Form

知情同意书

1. The purpose of this research:

To investigate and assess employee autonomous motivation, job performance, and job satisfaction in international hotel chains' operation in China

1、本次调研的目的：

调查和评价在中国的国际酒店员工的在工作中的自主性动机、工作表现及工作满意度。

2. The researcher of this study:

Jinhua Zhang is the principal researcher of this study as well as a PhD student in University of Plymouth.

2、本次研究的调查者：

英国普利茅斯大学的博士研究生张晋华，也是本次研究课题的主要调研者。

3. The respondents of this study:

Employees who are working in international hotel chains in China are the respondents of this study.

3、本次研究的被调查者：

我们邀请在中国的国际酒店员工参与本次调查。

4. The information that you need to provide in the research:

You can participate this research by filling in the questionnaire, which takes you less than 10 minutes.

4、您参加本次研究所需提供的信息：

您可以通过填写这份调查问卷参与此次研究。这份调查问卷所需时间总共不超过 10 分钟。

5. Right to withdraw:

Participants have the right to withdraw at any time without giving a reason. If you would like to withdraw from the research, you can contact the research by telephone or email (the researcher's contact is presented at the end of the informed consent).

5、您退出本次研究的权利：

您可以在问卷调研的任何阶段退出此次研究。如果您需要退出本次研究，可以通过电话或电子邮件的方式联系调研者（调研者联系方式见本说明末尾）。

6. Confidentiality:

In this research, we do not enquire your name or any information about your identity. We will deal with the information of the questionnaire you provide by anonymity and confidentiality. Besides, the researcher of this study will not give away your provided information of the questionnaire to the third party.

6、您的信息保密问题：

本次问卷调研不会询问您的姓名或任何其它与您身份相关的信息。我们会以匿名、保密的方式处理您所提供的问卷信息。此外，本次研究的调研者不会将您所提供的任何问卷信息泄露给第三方机构。

7. How to deal with the information of the questionnaire you provide:

Only members of the research team can get access to your information of the questionnaire. Additionally, your questionnaire's information will be protected in the light of Plymouth University's ethical principles. At the ending of this research, the researcher will use statistical methods to analyse the data of the questionnaire, and write down the analysis results into the report. After data analysis, the outcomes of this research may be published in an academic journal or textbook, or used for the communication in academic conferences.

7、您所提供的问卷信息将被如何处理：

只有本研究小组的成员才会接触您的问卷信息。此外，您的问卷信息将严格按照普利茅斯大学数据保护条例保存。在本次研究的末尾，研究人员会运用统计手段分析所有的问卷信息，并将分析结果写入报告中。在数据分析后，本研究的成果可能会在学术期刊或书籍中出版，或用于学术会议交流。

8. Contact information:

联系方式：

Correspondent(联系人):

Mr Jinhua Zhang

Email(邮箱):

jinhua.zhang@plymouth.ac.uk

Mobile(电话): +44(0)7938413623

Postal Address(地址):

Plymouth University
Drake Circus,
Plymouth
PL4 8AA

Agreement: I've read and agree to participate in the study described above.

我已阅读以上信息，并同意参与此次研究。

I AGREE
同意

I DISAGREE
不同意

Appendix H: Initial questionnaire (English version)

Section I About yourself

1. Gender: A. Male B. Female
2. Nationality: A. Chinese B. Other: _____
3. Education:
 A. Diploma or below
 B. Bachelor degree
 C. Master degree or above
4. City of working: _____
5. Name of hotel chain: _____
6. Department:
 A. Housekeeping B. Food & beverage C. Sales & marketing D. Engineering
 E. Human resources F. Purchasing G. Security H. Front office
 I. Finance J. General manager office K. Other: _____
7. Position classification
 A. Non-supervisory employee B. Supervisor C. Department manager D. Director
 F. General manager E. Other: _____
8. Years of work experience:
 A. 3 years or less
 B. 4-10 years
 C. More than 10 years

Section II Employee autonomous motivation and influential factors

1. Employee autonomous motivation

According to your own experience, please indicate, to what extent, you agree with the following statement (1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am autonomously motivated to work in the international hotel chain.							

2. Personality of employees

According to your own experience, please indicate, to what extent, you agree with the following statements (1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My personality influences me to work in an international hotel chain.							
I am very conscientious.							
I am very emotionally stable.							
I am very agreeable.							
I am very extraverted.							
I am very open to experience.							

3. Learning orientation

According to your own experience, please indicate, to what extent, you agree with the following statements (1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me.							
When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it.							
I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things.							
The opportunity to learn new things is important to me.							
I do my best when I am working on a fairly difficult task.							
I try hard to improve on my past performance.							
When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work.							
On the most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.							
Your performance on most tasks or jobs increase with the amount of effort you put into them.							

Section III Employee job performance and satisfaction

1. Employee job performance

According to your own experience, please indicate, to what extent, you agree with the following statements (1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My overall performance is good.							
My quality of work is good.							
My quantity of work is large.							
Efficiency of my work is high.							
My ability is good.							
My task fulfilment is good.							
My attendance rate is high.							
I cooperation with supervisors very well.							
I always try to work harder.							
I want to do my job better.							

2. Employee job satisfaction

According to your own experience, please indicate, to what extent, you agree with the following statements (1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel satisfied with my present job.							
My job is pretty interesting.							
I find real enjoyment in my work.							
I meet my goal for promotion.							
I meet my goal for the development of new skills.							

3. Supervisor-subordinate guanxi

According to your own experience, please indicate, to what extent, your behaviours are consistent with the following statements (1 means the least consistent, 7 means the most consistent)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I actively develop a positive guanxi with my superior.							
Call or visit my supervisor after office hours or in holidays.							
Share with my supervisor about my thoughts and feelings.							
My supervisor invites me for lunch/dinner.							
Send my supervisor gifts on special occasions.							

Section IV Transformational leadership

According to your own experience, please indicate, to what extent, you agree with the following statements (1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Superior communicates a clear and positive vision of the future.							
Superior treats me as individuals, supports and inspires my development.							
Superior gives inspiration and recognition to me.							
Superior fosters my involvement and engagement in the workplace.							
Superior inspires thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions.							
Superior is clear about his/her values and practices what he/she preach.							
Superior inspires me by his positive personality.							

Appendix I: Initial questionnaire (Chinese version)

第一部分 关于你

- 1、性别：A.男 B.女
- 2、国籍：A.中国 B.其他：_____
- 3、文化程度：A.专科及以下 B.本科 C.硕士及以上
- 4、目前工作所在城市：_____
- 5、所在酒店：_____
- 6、部门：
A. 客房部 B. 餐饮部 C. 市场营销部 D. 工程部 E. 人力资源部 F. 采购部
G. 保安部 H. 前厅部 I. 财务部 J. 总经理办公室 K.其他：_____
- 7、岗位级别：
A.普通员工（Non-supervisory employee）
B.主管（Supervisor）
C.部门经理（Department manager）
D.总监（Director）
E.总经理（General manager）
F. 其他：_____
- 8、在酒店行业的工作年限：_____

第二部分 员工自主性动机及其影响因素

1、员工自主性动机

根据您的经历，请表明您在何种程度上同意以下观点（1 代表完全不同意，7 代表完全同意）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我在国际酒店工作中有很强的自主动机。							

2、个性

根据您的经历，请表明您在何种程度上同意以下说法（1 代表完全不同意，7 代表完全同意）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的个性很激励我在国际酒店工作。							
我的工作的责任心很强。							
我的情绪波动很小。							
我很外向。							
我很外向。							
我在工作中富有很强的创新力。							

3、学习导向

根据您的经历，请表明您在何种程度上同意以下说法（1 代表完全不同意，7 代表完全同意）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
有机会做一些具有挑战性的工作对我来说很重要。							
当我在完成某项很具挑战性任务时失败了，我会计划下次更加努力去完成它。							
我更喜欢做一些能让我学到新事物的工作任务。							
学习新事物的机会对我很重要。							
当我正在做一个很具挑战性任务时，我会尽我所能去做好它。							
我很努力地在改进我过去的表现。							
当我在解决问题时遇到困难，我喜欢尝试用不同的方法来查看哪个方法可行。							
在大多数工作中，人们几乎可以完成他们计划要完成的一切。							
我在大多数工作任务上的表现会随着我付出的努力而增加。							

第三部分 员工工作表现及满意度

1、员工工作表现

根据您的自身经历，请表明您在何种程度上同意以下说法（1 代表完全不同意，7 代表完全同意）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我在工作中的总体表现非常好。							
我的工作质量很高。							
我的工作量很大。							
我的工作效率很高。							
我的工作能力很强。							
我的工作任务完成的都很好。							
我的出勤率很高。							
我和上级合作的很好							
我总是试图更加努力地工作							
我想把我的工作做得更好							

2、员工工作满意度

根据您的自身经历，请表明您在何种程度上同意以下说法（1 代表完全不同意，7 代表完全同意）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我很满意我现在的工作。							
我的工作很有趣							
我在工作中找到了真正的快乐。							
我实现了升职的目标。							
我在工作中学到了想要学的新技能。							

3、人际关系

根据您的自身经历，请表明您在何种程度上与以下行为一致（1 代表完全不一致，7 代表完全一致）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我非常主动的和领导建立良好的关系网。							
在节假日里，我会主动去拜访或打电话给我的领导表示问候。							
我会经常把我的想法和感受告诉我的领导。							
我的领导常叫我和一起吃午餐或晚餐。							
在一些特殊时候，我会给我的领导送礼物。							

第四部分 领导能力

根据您的经历，请表明您在何种程度上同意以下说法（1 代表完全不同意，7 代表完全同意）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
领导能够把一个清晰明确的未来蓝图传达给我们。							
领导把我当成自己人，并鼓励支持我的职业发展。							
领导时常对我的工作表现给予鼓励和认可。							
领导注重培养我的工作参与性和投入性。							
领导经常鼓励我用新方法来思考问题并对问题要做出合理假设。							
领导对他的价值观和实践他所倡导的东西是很明确的。							
领导的工作能力和个人魅力在工作中鼓舞着我。							

Appendix J: The final questionnaire (English version)

Section I About yourself

1. Gender: A. Male B. Female
2. Nationality: A. Chinese B. Other: _____
3. Education:
A. Diploma or below
B. Bachelor degree
C. Master degree or above
4. City of current employment: _____
5. Name of current hotel chain where you are employed: _____
6. Current department:
A. Housekeeping B. Food & beverage C. Sales & marketing D. Engineering
E. Human resources F. Purchasing G. Security H. Front office
I. Finance J. General manager office K. Other: _____
7. Current position classification
A. Non-supervisory employee B. Supervisor C. Department manager D. Director
F. General manager E. Other: _____
8. Length of service in years in international hotel chains: _____

Section II Employee autonomous motivation and influential factors

1. Employee autonomous motivation

According to your own experience, please indicate, to what extent, you agree with the following statement (1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel psychological self-determination to engage in work at the international hotel chain.							

2. Personality of employees

According to your own experience, please indicate, to what extent, you agree with the following statements (1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My personality motivates me to work in an international hotel chain.							
I am very conscientious in the workplace.							
I have high emotional stability in the workplace.							
I am empathic with others in the workplace.							
I never feel shy with others in the workplace.							
I like working with new ideas and possibilities.							

3. Learning orientation

According to your own experience, please indicate, to what extent, you agree with the following statements (1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I prefer to work on tasks which oblige me to learn new things.							
The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me.							
When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it.							
I do my best when I am working on a fairly difficult task.							
I try hard to improve on my past performance.							
When I have difficulty in solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work.							
I often actively learn new things rather than waiting for training to be provided by the hotel or department.							

4. Transformational leadership

According to your own experience, please indicate, to what extent, you agree with the following statements (1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My supervisor communicates a clear and positive vision of the future.							
My supervisor treats me as an individual, and supports and encourages my development.							
My supervisor gives me inspiration and recognition.							
My supervisor fosters my engagement and involvement in the workplace.							
My supervisor inspires thinking about problems in new ways and questions assumptions.							
My supervisor is clear about his/her values and practises what he/she preaches.							
My supervisor inspires me by his/her personality charm.							

Section III Employee job performance and satisfaction

1. Employee job performance

According to your own experience, please indicate, to what extent, you agree with the following statements (1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My overall performance is good.							
The quality of my work is good.							
My quantity of work is large.							
The efficiency of my work is high.							
My ability is good.							
My task fulfilment is good.							
My attendance rate is good.							

2. Employee job satisfaction

According to your own experience, please indicate, to what extent, you agree with the following statements (1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel satisfied with my present job.							
My work is interesting.							
I find real enjoyment in my work.							
I meet my goals for promotion							
I meet my goals for the development of new skills							

Section IV Supervisor-subordinate guanxi

According to your own experience, please indicate, to what extent, you agree with the following statements (1 means strongly disagree, 7 means strongly agree).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I actively develop a positive guanxi with my supervisor.							
I will call or visit my supervisor after office hours or in holidays.							
I often share my thoughts and feelings with my supervisor.							
My superior often invites me for lunch/dinner.							
I will send my supervisor gifts on special occasions.							
My supervisor gives me support at work so that I can enhance working efficiency.							

Appendix K: The final questionnaire (Chinese version)

第一部分 关于你

- 1、性别：A.男 B.女
- 2、国籍：A.中国 B.其他：_____
- 3、文化程度：A.专科及以下 B.本科 C.硕士及以上
- 4、目前工作所在城市：_____
- 5、您工作所在的酒店：_____
- 6、目前所在的部门：
A. 客房部 B. 餐饮部 C. 市场营销部 D. 工程部 E. 人力资源部 F. 采购部
G. 保安部 H. 前厅部 I. 财务部 J. 总经理办公室 K.其他：_____
- 7、目前岗位级别：
A.普通员工（Non-supervisory employee）
B.主管（Supervisor）
C.部门经理（Department manager）
D.总监（Director）
E.总经理（General manager）
F.其他：_____
- 8、在国际酒店的工作年限：_____

第二部分 员工自主性激励及其影响因素

1、员工自主性激励

根据您的自身的经历，请表明您在何种程度上同意以下观点（1 代表完全不同意，7 代表完全同意）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
在从事国际酒店的各项工作中，我内心有很强的自主性。							

2、个性

根据您的自身的经历，请表明您在何种程度上同意以下说法（1 代表完全不同意，7 代表完全同意）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的个性很激励我在国际酒店工作。							
我在工作中的责任心很强。							
我在工作中情绪波动很小。							
我在工作中很善解人意。							
我在工作中与人相处从不感到害羞。							
我在工作中喜欢思考新的方法和可能性。							

3、学习导向

根据您的自身的经历，请表明您在何种程度上同意以下说法（1 代表完全不同意，7 代表完全同意）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我更喜欢做一些能让我学到新东西的工作任务。							
有机会做一些具有挑战性的工作对我来说很重要。							
当我在完成某项很具挑战性任务时失败了，我会计划下次更加努力去完成它。							
当我正在做一个很具挑战性任务时，我会尽我所能去做好它。							
我很努力地在改进我过去的表现。							
当我在解决问题时遇到困难，我喜欢尝试用不同的方法来查看哪个方法可行。							
我通常会主动去学习新知识而不是被动等待酒店或部门提供的培训。							

4、变革型领导

根据您的经历，请表明您在何种程度上同意以下说法（1 代表完全不同意，7 代表完全同意）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的上级能够把一个清晰明确的未来蓝图传达给我们。							
我的上级把我当成自己人，并鼓励支持我的职业发展。							
我的上级时常对我的工作表现给予鼓励和认可。							
我的上级注重培养我的工作参与度和工作投入度。							
我的上级经常鼓励我用新方法来思考问题并对问题要做出合理假设。							
我的上级对他的价值观和实践他所倡导的东西是很明确的。							
我的上级的人格魅力在工作中鼓舞着我。							

第三部分 员工工作表现及满意度

1、员工工作表现

根据您的经历，请表明您在何种程度上同意以下说法（1 代表完全不同意，7 代表完全同意）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我在工作中的总体表现非常好。							
我的工作质量很高。							
我的工作量很大。							
我的工作效率很高。							
我的工作能力很强。							
我的工作任务完成的都很好。							
我的出勤率很高。							

2、员工工作满意度

根据您的自身的经历，请表明您在何种程度上同意以下说法（1代表完全不同意，7代表完全同意）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我很满意我目前的工作。							
我的工作令人感兴趣。							
我在工作中找到了真正的快乐。							
我实现了升职的目标。							
我在工作中学到了想要学的新技能。							

第四部分 人际关系

根据您的自身的经历，请表明您在何种程度上与以下行为一致（1代表完全不一致，7代表完全一致）

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我非常主动的和领导建立良好的关系网。							
在节假日里，我会主动去拜访或打电话给我的上级表示问候。							
我会经常把我的想法和感受告诉我的上级。							
我的上级常叫我一起吃午餐或晚餐。							
在一些特殊时候，我会给我的上级送礼物。							
我的上级在工作中很支持我，使我的工作效率得到显著提高。							

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